

**SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 1987**

**TWENTY-SEVENTH YEAR — No. 260**

**PROTECTION  
AND ASSISTANCE**

# **international review of the red cross**



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The **International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)**, together with the League of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and the 145 recognized National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, is one of the three components of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

An independent humanitarian institution, the ICRC is the founding body of the Red Cross. As a neutral intermediary in case of armed conflicts or disturbances, it endeavours on its own initiative or on the basis of the Geneva Conventions to protect and assist the victims of international and civil wars and of internal troubles and tensions, thereby contributing to peace in the world.

*International Review of the Red Cross* has been published, in French, under various titles, by the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) since 1869. Its first complete edition in English was issued in 1961.

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- specializing in international humanitarian law and ICRC doctrine,
- recording the international activities of the Red Cross, mainly for reference purpose, as a chronicle of events,

*International Review of the Red Cross* provides a constant flow of information and maintains the necessary link between the members of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

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# Assistance to protected persons

by Jean-Luc Blondel

The questions facing the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement today are no different from those with which the Movement began: What is the best way to help? How can we give immediate aid and also provide long-term protection? To answer these questions we have to go back to the early years of the Movement.

## I. Protection and assistance

The idea of aid is not new: there are abundant examples of altruism and unselfish assistance, prior to and apart from the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. The innovation brought by the Movement was twofold: **continuity** and **protection**, assured by the **neutrality** of the assistance. Thus, while the “Solferino reflex” is to give immediate help, “Geneva reflection” is to plan and organize relief activities. From the beginning this was to be done in two ways, by:

- The establishment of corps of volunteer nurses, auxiliaries to the military medical services. These “aid societies”, first described by Henry Dunant, should be permanent, which implies **preparation** in peacetime for wartime activities.
- Recognition of the neutrality not only of the sick and wounded on the battlefield but also of those who came to their assistance, along with their equipment. In concrete terms such recognition implied **protection**. This was the vital root of what was to become international humanitarian law.

The latter point is essential, for it is **law** that protects; the law constituted by the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols which assures protection of the lives and dignity of the victims of a conflict. The Red Cross and Red Crescent can and must perform important services in this connection by encouraging knowledge of humanitarian law and seeing that it is effectively applied. With reference to the latter point, the Geneva Conventions place a number of obligations on the International Committee of the Red Cross, making it the particular institution within the Movement responsible for protecting the victims of conflict. Protecting the victims implies making it possible for them to benefit from the guarantees provided by international humanitarian law. All the varied activities of the ICRC are designed to make the protection afforded by the humanitarian conventions real and effective. The Geneva Conventions give considerable emphasis to **relief**, a way of saying that the protection of the victims of a conflict requires that they be given assistance.

The expression "protection and assistance" appears for the first time in the Statutes of the International Red Cross as revised in 1952 (adopted by the XVIIIth International Conference in Toronto). In the article devoted to the ICRC it replaces the expression "**humanitarian activities**" used in the first Statutes of 1928, which was probably considered too vague. This dual designation of the protection and assistance activities of the ICRC was repeated in Article 5.2 (d) of the revised Statutes adopted by the Twenty-fifth International Conference in Geneva in 1986, which specified that it is one of the functions of the ICRC "to endeavour at all times—as a neutral institution whose humanitarian work is carried out particularly in time of international and other armed conflicts or internal strife—to ensure the protection of and assistance to military and civilian victims of such events and of their direct results".

Neither in 1952 nor thereafter was there any intention through the use of this expression to designate two **distinct** activities of the ICRC. The words were used together specifically for the purpose of emphasizing the scope of "**humanitarian activities**": the **variety of activities undertaken** on behalf of the victims should not distort the **unity of practical purpose** which underlies **all** the ICRC's interventions.

In an armed conflict, as we have seen, it is not the provision of relief as such which gives the Red Cross its unique character but rather the **conjunction** of relief and protection. The Red Cross was



born of the observation that when the services of a neutral intermediary are necessary in time of war, protection is a prerequisite for the efficacy of assistance. To express this in other terms, the innovation represented by the Red Cross does not consist in Dunant's humanitarian actions at Solferino, but in the creation of permanent aid societies and, in parallel with this, the drafting of the Geneva Conventions.

What makes this combination necessary is the position in which both the victims and those bringing assistance find themselves in conflict situations. The provision of relief in peacetime certainly presents many difficult technical problems, but at least it does not encounter military obstacles; since in peacetime aid to the victims is not regarded as a contribution to the war effort of an opposing party. In wartime, however, relief itself often falls victim to the atmosphere of hostility and mistrust. Relief must therefore be **protected** and a right of passage and distribution must be agreed on between the parties to the conflict or, better, by a higher authority. This right cannot, however, be granted to aid societies unless each party has a guarantee that the relief will not benefit the opposing army. Hence the importance of the idea of neutrality, which primarily concerns the wounded and sick and those who bring aid to them.

The **wounded and sick** are neutral; they are "neutralized" (*hors de combat*) by their very situation. They accordingly benefit from protection which is both "negative" (they must not be killed) and positive (they must be cared for and removed from the combat zone). Assistance corresponds to this positive aspect of protection.

**Relief workers** are also neutral, for humanitarian assistance never constitutes interference in a conflict. Those who help are also neutralized and therefore protected (this point is at the heart of the first Geneva Convention of 1864).

Finally, **assistance** itself is neutral and impartial: its only purpose is to help the victims. The only rules governing it are those determined by the urgency of the needs and respect for medical ethics.

The three elements of assistance are accordingly regulated by a number of principles, respect for which confers upon the Red Cross its unique character: humanity (the welfare of the victims), impartiality (the absence of any discrimination in the distribution of aid, which goes to the victims of both camps), independence (of those who bring the aid) and neutrality (the aid goes only to the victims

and cannot therefore affect the balance of power), voluntary service (there is no selfish motive for the assistance), unity (only one Red Cross, only one Red Cross "front") and universality (the relief operation is a manifestation of international solidarity).

Humanitarian law supplies an answer to the question of efficacy: How else can conflict victims be guaranteed a minimum of security and certain rights so that they can live and survive amidst the calamities afflicting them? The Geneva Conventions were obviously created first and foremost for the purpose of bringing aid to the victims of conflicts, but they had to be equally concerned with protecting those victims.

Let us now see what the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols provide for in this respect.

## **II. Relief in international humanitarian law**

It is natural to wish there were better practical co-ordination of international relief operations, but it is unrealistic to think of including a "right to relief" in a convention. This was demonstrated by the experience of the *International Relief Union* (1927-1967). In the field of relief, action on a purely voluntary basis (illustrated by the action of the Red Cross and Red Crescent) has proved more certain and more effective than attempts at codification and regulation. In any event, although it is clear who would benefit from such a convention, it is difficult to imagine that States would accept the obligations resulting from it. It is undoubtedly better in this connection to retain enough freedom of action to leave the door open to humanitarian initiatives rather than to adopt an excessively restrictive law.

Humanitarian organizations do not, however, work in a complete legal vacuum. The principles of international humanitarian law are determined by the Geneva Conventions and the resolutions of the International Conferences of the Red Cross and Red Crescent.

We shall not consider here relief operations in natural disasters, which are the responsibility of the League and the National Societies: we shall concern ourselves primarily with relief activities in situations of conflict, in which it is for the ICRC to intervene, either alone or as co-ordinator of assistance given by the National Societies.

The Geneva Convention of 1864 established the initial rules for the protection of wounded and sick on the battlefield, granting victims the right to be rescued and the rescuers the right to help them, and obliging States to provide necessary—at that time only medical—relief or allow it to be provided. The same protective purpose was manifested in adapting the principles of the 1864 Convention to war at sea (1899) and in drafting the Geneva Convention relative to the treatment of prisoners of war (1929). These Conventions were of benefit to countless victims of international conflicts who could be given relief precisely because they were protected by this law. This was in contrast to the immense misery of people not protected by the Conventions, such as civilian prisoners or the millions of internees in concentration camps, who had no protection and therefore no relief. Until 1949 there was practically no provision in international humanitarian law regulating relief for civilian populations.

**Relief for the civilian population in case of international armed conflict** has been of concern to International Conferences of the Red Cross ever since the XIth International Conference (Geneva, 1923) when Resolution 10 was passed requesting the adoption of an international convention with provisions for the care and relief of vulnerable groups, namely old people, women and children. From that time on, successive conferences have repeatedly discussed the protection of civilians in the event of blockade, or against the effects of certain weapons, and the protection of civilians of enemy nationality in the territory of a belligerent or in occupied territory.<sup>1</sup>

The Geneva Conventions of 1949 have numerous provisions relating to relief in the event of international armed conflicts, some of which merely repeat earlier rules as in the case of relief for prisoners of war.

The Fourth Convention has several important articles concerning protection of the civilian population (Part II, Articles 13 to 26). We may refer, for example, to Article 23, the first paragraph of which reads as follows:

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<sup>1</sup> In 1923, the XIth International Conference of the Red Cross eliminated from an ICRC draft all provisions concerning the protection of civilian populations, retaining only those relating to prisoners of war, which were subsequently to constitute the basis of the Geneva Convention of 1929 on that subject. Eleven years later in Tokyo, the XIVth International Conference approved an ICRC draft for a convention which would protect civilians. ICRC efforts to have this adopted by the States were interrupted by the Second World War.

*"Each High Contracting Party shall allow the free passage of all consignments of medical and hospital stores and objects necessary for religious worship intended only for civilians of another High Contracting Party, even if the latter is its adversary. It shall likewise permit the free passage of all consignments of essential foodstuffs, clothing and tonics intended for children under fifteen, expectant mothers and maternity cases."*

The purpose of this article is to alleviate the consequences of blockade for the civilians most exposed to them; but it does not solve all the problems of a relief action. Shipments of medicaments are authorized for all civilians, but not shipments of food; these are allowed only for children under fifteen, pregnant women and maternity cases. The obligation to allow free passage is not absolute, as the parties have a duly recognized right of inspection and especially of effective supervision. The grant of facilities and exemptions from charges is not expressly provided for, except in Article 142, which grants relief societies the right to facilities for the distribution of relief to protected persons only, and not to the entire civilian population.

In addition to the articles in Part II of the Convention, there are several others on relief, especially Article 38 (relief for aliens in the territory of a party to the conflict), Articles 59-62 (relief of the population in occupied territories), and Articles 108-111 (relief shipments to internees).

The Geneva Conventions contain another important provision (Article 9 in the first three Conventions and Article 10 in the Fourth Convention) authorizing the ICRC, subject to the consent of the parties to the conflict, to undertake any humanitarian initiative considered useful for the protection of the victims of armed conflicts and for their relief. This right of initiative enables it to undertake any relief activities not already provided for by the Conventions.

The Protocol additional to the Geneva Conventions which relates to the protection of victims of international armed conflicts (Protocol I) was designed to improve the system established by the Fourth Convention. The Diplomatic Conference (after discussion at commission level and in plenary session) adopted four articles relating to relief, the main provisions of which are as follows:

- The Conference maintained the principle upheld by the ICRC that relief is intended for the whole civilian population and not only for some vulnerable categories (Article 68).
- Departing from the ICRC draft, the Conference adopted a special article (Article 69) on basic needs in occupied territories, thus supplementing Articles 59-62 and 108-111 of the Fourth Convention.
- Relief operations in territories other than occupied territories are governed by Article 70. This article specifies that if supplies of basic needs to a civilian population are insufficient, relief actions of a humanitarian and impartial character shall be undertaken, subject to the agreement of the parties concerned.
- The High Contracting Parties (to the Protocol) and the parties to the conflicts must authorize the rapid passage of relief equipment and personnel, even if it is intended for the adverse party. They may nevertheless prescribe technical arrangements and make their permission conditional on the distribution of relief being made under the supervision of a Protecting Power (Article 70, paragraphs 2 and 3). They are obliged to protect relief consignments, doing everything possible to prevent relief being diverted from its legitimate recipients, especially by severely repressing pillage and giving strict orders to the armed forces.
- International co-ordination of relief is encouraged (Article 70, paragraph 5), but the Protocol does not impose any system of co-ordination.
- The admission of relief personnel is subject to the approval of the party concerned. Such personnel must be respected and protected, but their mission may be terminated if they exceed the terms of their mission (Article 71).

The question of **relief in non-international armed conflicts** has been of concern to the Red Cross for a very long time.<sup>2</sup> Since 1949

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<sup>2</sup> Although the Red Cross was concerned in *practical* terms with this question very early in its career—as illustrated by its intervention in the third Carlist war in Spain, 1872-1876, and in Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1875—it was not until the IXth International Conference in Washington in 1912 that the question was taken up of an international convention on the subject. This proposal, put forward by Mr. Clark, a delegate of the American National Society, was not followed up. In 1921 the Xth Conference adopted a resolution (Resolution XIV) which recognized the right to humanitarian intervention by National Societies in the event of civil wars and social and revolutionary disturbances, and entrusted the ICRC with the task of supplementing, if necessary, the efforts of the National Society of the country

the legal position has been marked by the existence of a new regulation, Article 3 common to the four Geneva Conventions. Although this Article does not explicitly mention relief to the population, it nevertheless sets forth the spirit in which such relief should be provided, by stating that "*persons taking no active part in the hostilities ... shall in all circumstances be treated humanely,*" and "*the wounded and sick shall be collected and cared for.*" These phrases clearly indicate an obligation to provide assistance.<sup>3</sup>

At the time of the Diplomatic Conference which finally adopted the Additional Protocols, the ICRC had prepared a draft which sought to make the two Protocols as similar as possible. When adopted, however, the Additional Protocol relating to the protection of victims of non-international armed conflicts (Protocol II) contained only one provision concerning relief, Article 18, which is limited to a statement of the fundamental principles for relief actions without entering into the mechanisms for putting them into effect.

In situations of internal conflict, therefore, the main basis for relief actions for the population is still the right to humanitarian initiative, which Article 3 common to all the Convention accords to the ICRC.

No provision in the Conventions or Protocols, however, covers **assistance activities in the event of internal disturbances or tensions**. In these circumstances, the right of initiative which the Statutes of the Movement confer upon the ICRC constitutes the basis of its humanitarian activity. The International Committee is mainly concerned with the treatment and protection of political detainees, but

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concerned and organizing an international relief action. Resolution XIV of the XVIth Conference held in London in 1938 confirmed the scope of Red Cross intervention as set forth in 1921.

<sup>3</sup> Bearing in mind, but not mentioning explicitly, the blockade of Algeria by France, the XIXth International Conference of the Red Cross held in New Delhi in 1957 availed itself of what one might call the humanitarian opening left by Article 3 common to the four Geneva Conventions by expressing "*the wish that a new provision be added to the existing Geneva Conventions of 1949, extending the provisions of Article 3 thereof so that:*

- a) *the wounded may be cared for without discrimination and doctors in no way hindered when giving the care which they are called upon to provide in these circumstances,*
- b) *the inviolable principle of medical professional secrecy may be respected,*
- c) *there may be no restrictions, other than those provided by international legislation, on the sale and free circulation of medicines, it being understood that these will be used exclusively for therapeutic purposes,*

*furthermore, makes an urgent appeal to all Governments to repeal any measures which might be contrary to the present Resolution."*

apparently its activities have to be extended into other domains such as relief for the civilian population and displaced persons, and protection against arbitrary treatment and indiscriminate attacks, in which the National Societies did most of the work until 1921. Their activities in these spheres have since tapered off because of the development of the ICRC's right of initiative and because many States disapprove of "their" National Societies giving aid to opponents of the regime.

For that matter, with a few outstanding exceptions, not all the National Societies possess the independence required for such tasks. The International Committee attempts, however, to associate the Societies with medical or food relief activities, dissemination of the Fundamental Principles and of humanitarian law, and the tracing of missing persons (Tracing Agency work).

### **III. Protecting assisted persons**

The ICRC has always tried to link its relief activities and its protective mission. Assistance is complementary to protection. As we have seen, the Red Cross contribution in armed conflicts is to **associate** assistance and protection. Obviously, relief in itself is not what gives the Red Cross its unique quality (even if it does often do pioneer work in this respect!) but then neither is protection, of which it has no monopoly. Protection is not the preserve of the Red Cross alone, but of **law**, and in this particular case humanitarian law. It is a legal rule which primarily expresses, in a more or less mandatory manner, the determination of the political community to provide its members with a number of guarantees. Humanitarian law is also a product of this determination; it lays down rules that can protect victims of conflicts. It is for this reason that we began by examining the provisions in the Conventions and in customary law which relate to relief.

#### ***PROTECTION: A TERM WITH MANY CONNOTATIONS***

We should look more deeply into the fundamental concept of protection. The Latin root of the word, *pro tegere*, which literally means "to cover in front", suggests a curtain or shelter against sun or storm, or a screen or shield to preserve a person or thing from danger. Synonymous or explanatory terms such as safeguard, guarantee, help, envelop, cover, screen, protect or mask all have the same connotation of security.

Along with the direct material sense of the word, there are derivative connotations which are of particular concern to us here. Generally speaking, to **protect** signifies:

- to help (a person) by sheltering him from attack, mistreatment or danger;
- to nullify attempts to compromise his integrity or to make him disappear;
- to satisfy his need for security; to preserve and defend him.

The word **assistance** encompasses several of these ideas—of rescue, defence, etc.—and gives prominence to the idea of **presence**; of standing ready to assist someone. In legal terms, for example, a **defence** lawyer **assists** a defendant who cannot **defend** himself.

In the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement the term protection is used in various contexts:

- The purpose of the Movement is “*to protect life and health and to ensure respect for the human being.*” (The Fundamental Principle of humanity).
- The XXth International Conference recalled “*the historic role of the Red Cross as a protector of victims of war.*” (Resolution XXIV of the XXth International Conference, Vienna, 1965).
- The new Statutes of the Movement define the ICRC as “*a neutral institution whose humanitarian work is carried out particularly in time of international and other armed conflicts or internal strife... to ensure the protection of and assistance to military and civilian victims of such events and of their direct results.*” (Statutes of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, Article 5, para. 2 d.)
- The Conference “*...urges the International Committee of the Red Cross to continue its efforts for the protection of the civilian population against the evils of war.*” (Resolution XIII of the XIXth International Conference, New Delhi, 1957.)
- Red Cross protection, as described in the background paper *Present role of the Red Cross in protection*, embraces “*three main categories of activities aimed at protecting individuals in conflicts: helping to develop international humanitarian law; helping to apply that law; engaging in ad hoc diplomacy on the basis of humanitarian motivation.*” (Re-appraisal of the Role of the Red Cross, Final Report, by D. Tansley: *An Agenda for the Red Cross*, page 21, July 1975.) This report does not, strictly speaking, define the notion of protection.



Despite the variety of ways in which the principle is expressed, we can distinguish two major forms of protection, determined by the circumstances of the victims.

- a) **In time of peace and social tranquillity**, when medical, social, and legal institutions, etc. are functioning normally: The persons to be protected are exposed to natural disasters or dangers or those due to shortcomings in medical and social structures. They are not in an intentionally hostile environment and they do not necessarily lack protection. In this case, Red Cross and Red Crescent action consists mainly in preventing disease, averting disasters or accidents or reducing their impact by protecting life and health. This is the special responsibility of the National Societies and their federation, the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.
- b) **In periods of international or internal armed conflict**: These are the circumstances covered by international humanitarian law; its particular purpose is to provide rules and mechanisms for aid to victims of conflict or of its direct consequences.<sup>4</sup> This body of law has far-reaching objectives: through a very detailed structure of rules, it seeks to assure for an individual who is placed by the fortunes of war in the power of an adverse party **as normal a life as possible**, taking military necessity into account. Protection of course aims primarily at **preventing physical or psychological attacks** on the victims, but it also has the more ambitious and broader purpose of **preserving a certain quality and dignity of life** for them.

Humanitarian law, which links action in the field with the statement of principles, assigns the International Committee a special mandate. The situations in which the ICRC is called upon to act—armed conflicts, internal disturbances and tensions—produce victims who need to be both assisted and protected. The persons in need of protection are in an environment that is hostile or likely to become so. They have been deprived of their natural protectors, who are absent or powerless, incapable of assuming their proper role, or—as in the case of political detainees—unwilling to do so.

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<sup>4</sup> Quite different from “human rights” provisions, which are generally declarative and lacking in mechanisms designed to ensure effective respect for them in the field. International humanitarian law requires legal protection to be accompanied by verification procedures on the spot, carried out by Protecting Powers or the ICRC. This law does not provide absolute guarantees that it will always be fully respected, but it does lay down the “rules of the game” and means for their application.

They are **in the power of their adversaries** or threatened by them. They are regarded by the government (or party exercising authority) as enemies, even when they are nationals of the country it rules. These categories of persons are exposed to the risk of arbitrary treatment by the authorities. This is why the ICRC attaches such importance to their protection; protection here means ensuring that they enjoy humane treatment and basic security.

Their first line of protection is the law, which represents a guarantee upon which an individual or social group can depend. This is why the ICRC gives high priority to increasingly comprehensive rules capable of assuring the protection of victims, and to the dissemination of humanitarian law.

"Prevention is better than cure" goes the truism. To disseminate the law and make it understood is indeed a form of prevention, of warning and instruction. Thus understood, dissemination is an essential means of protection.

### ***PROTECTION: SUPPORT AND DEFENCE***

Recitation of the law and proclamation of humanitarian rules, however, is still not enough to ensure that they are fully implemented. This gives rise to the **practical** role of the ICRC, whose intervention is specifically provided for in international law.

To the International Committee, therefore, protection means even more than the development and dissemination of humanitarian law; it has an essentially practical dimension. Protection implies *"Any humanitarian action whose purpose is to protect the victims of armed conflicts and situations of internal disturbances and tensions from the danger, suffering and abuses of power to which they might be exposed, and to take up their defence and come to their aid."*<sup>5</sup>

It is clear that assistance constitutes a direct complement to protection. If the efforts of the ICRC and other institutions succeed in protecting a refugee camp from enemy attacks, but then the refugees die from an epidemic, the protection has no meaning. Conversely, what good would it do to set up a medical infrastructure in a camp which is constantly under attack? Worse yet, how can an ICRC doctor treat the wounds inflicted upon prisoners by a torturer without trying to put a stop to this abuse of human dignity?

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<sup>5</sup> See F. Bugnion: *Le Comité international de la Croix-Rouge et la protection des victimes de guerre*, ICRC, Geneva (presently being written): Introduction.

In the view of the ICRC, protection means above all **presence**, manifested by visits, distribution of relief, tracing missing relatives, etc. Here the primary meaning of protection, which we have defined as the whole range of steps taken to establish, make known and apply humanitarian standards and principles, acquires a wider dimension and encompasses all the activities undertaken by the ICRC to safeguard the rights of victims and to preserve them from death, attack and the anguish resulting from the insecurity of their situation.

The key element determining ICRC intervention is not knowing how the relationship between protection and assistance is established, but ascertaining the degree of insecurity affecting the victims: the extent of the dangers to which they are exposed by war, internal disturbances or tensions. This is what the ICRC needs to know in order to decide whether to intervene or not. When it does intervene, the presence of the ICRC has two aspects:

- a quantifiable aspect, consisting of the services rendered to an individual or group of persons in the form of visits, relief, care, etc.;
- a less easily measurable aspect, the value or efficacy of the ICRC's presence in relation to the security of the protected persons.

The idea of protection is associated mainly with the second aspect, but in no way rules out the first: presence takes the form of a number of **services**, which are expected both to manifest and to provide real protection. Protection in this context means two things:

- assessing and observing the situation and, on this basis, intervening on behalf of the victims;
- assuring against, forestalling and preventing (harm, suffering or attacks upon them).

Even though the Geneva Conventions, in Article 1 common to all four, obliges the States not only to respect humanitarian law but also to ensure respect for it, the ICRC nevertheless has a special and unique mandate in this connection. It is assigned the task of helping to develop and disseminate humanitarian rules and principles, and of ensuring their application in the field. Its presence close to the battlefield and in the secret places of prisons, where it mingles with victims, makes the ICRC particularly well placed to carry out the function of inspection and **verification**.

## **INTERVENTION ON BEHALF OF VICTIMS**

The ICRC does not merely list violations and abuses; it **intervenes** on behalf of the victims, speaking for them and defending them.

The ICRC accepts this task and carries it out as well it can, but cannot guarantee that its presence alone will be sufficient to protect the victims. It cannot guarantee that its presence will prevent attacks against civilians, disappearances and torture. The ICRC can of course declare that humanitarian law is applicable and do its utmost to ensure that it is respected, but cannot guarantee that it will always be applied by all the parties to a conflict.

The purpose of the ICRC's presence, however, is to **eliminate abuses**. By its presence and interventions it hopes to dissuade, if possible to prevent, and perhaps to educate.

This special mandate gives the ICRC a unique place in the world of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, the other components of which of course share its concerns. To be more precise, however, just what constitutes the specificity of the ICRC? Let us consider the following factors:

- **Protection is not the preserve of the ICRC.** The primary guarantor and natural protector of the rights of individuals is obviously the **State**. It is mainly when government services break down, and in principle only in that event, that other institutions can or should take over. As we have seen, the idea of protection may also relate to medical activity as such (treatment and prevention of disease); to activities carried out by a National Society in peacetime (a first-aid worker who helps injured persons and saves them from death is performing a protective mission); or to the activities of other international bodies such as the United Nations, the Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees, Amnesty International, the International Commission of Jurists, etc.
- Protection is in no way limited to activities connected with **visits to detainees**. Indeed, the visit itself is only the culmination of a process in which preventive measures (agreeing on procedures for visits, obtaining systematic notification of arrests, registration), vigilance, and repeated approaches to the authorities all offer protection (in the sense of **protection against disappearance**). During the period of detention, when the visits take place, the ICRC assists as much as it protects. It provides the detainees with various services: family news, medical care, var-

ious forms of relief, etc. Improvement of the general conditions of detention is part of both assistance and protection. If a visit may be seen as having a specific protective function, this relates primarily to the **prevention of torture** or other forms of ill-treatment, calling to mind the image of the “shield” which the ICRC delegates interpose between the prisoner and the detaining power.

- Assistance, quite obviously, is not limited to the provision of relief or medical care. What about the moral assistance rendered to the families of detainees, of missing persons, of refugees? What is giving food to the hungry, care to the wounded, if not the most fundamental gesture of protection: saving people from death?

What conclusions can be drawn from these observations? First of all, that it is just as superficial to speak of “assistance” when we mean relief as it is to speak of “protection” when we are referring to visits to prisoners. Both the visits **and** the distribution of relief must be carried out as integral parts of protection.

This leads us to a further observation which brings us back to our original statement: for the ICRC, “protection” and “assistance” are two aspects of a single commitment to bringing relief to victims of armed conflicts. The two terms designate **concerns**, and not activities. Unless we revert to such general expressions as “**humanitarian activity**” there would appear to be no single concept that covers the whole range of ICRC activities; and in any event neither one of the terms under discussion is adequate.

### ***THE NEED FOR A NEUTRAL INTERMEDIARY***

ICRC intervention depends on the prevailing **situation**. By its very nature, the ICRC is best qualified to intervene in situations of armed conflicts and internal disturbances or tensions. This specific role is recognized by the Statutes of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. In such situations, in other words where a neutral **institution** or **intermediary** is necessary, the ICRC steps in. We should note, however, that the terms “institution” and “intermediary” have various shades of meaning:

- in a restricted sense, the term intermediary designates a **mediator**, an agent serving as a go-between for two or several parties, a negotiator designated or accepted by all parties;

- in a broader sense, it refers to someone who **stands between** two others, a third party who places himself between two parties, a “warrior without weapons” who is independent and neutral;
- a **neutral institution** is not necessarily an intermediary. It may simply offer its services without identifying itself with one cause or the other (Latin. *ne + uter*).

In practice, the ICRC corresponds more often to the last two definitions than to the first. It is rarely called upon to serve as a negotiator, to establish protected zones, arrange exchanges of prisoners, etc. Because it is neutral and independent, the ICRC:

- is **trusted** by all parties;
- may therefore act without restriction in favour of the victims, that is, provide them with **protective relief**;
- may also offer its services to facilitate a meeting or dialogue between the adversaries, or even their eventual reconciliation.

A special characteristic of the ICRC is its **availability** for humanitarian work. This is primarily assured by its complete and consistent neutrality. In all its activities it seeks to **defend** those it assists, to keep them from dying of hunger, to protect them from ill-treatment, to make sure they do not “disappear” and that they are not attacked. This is obviously a **concern** and not strictly speaking an activity.

The overriding principle that the Red Cross must defend is neither presence at all costs nor efficacy alone, but the welfare of the victims. Here “welfare” means protection.

## ***DIVISION OF RESPONSIBILITIES***

The ICRC has always stressed one very simple but essential point:<sup>6</sup> in countries or regions ravaged by conflict, Red Cross unity of action absolutely must be maintained. The relief operations conducted by the Red Cross cannot be dissociated from other more difficult and thankless tasks which the ICRC undertakes for the benefit of all victims: the relief it provides serves to back up

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<sup>6</sup> See, for example, J. Moreillon: “Red Cross assistance and protection”, in *International Review of the Red Cross*, No. 224 (Sept.-Oct. 1981), pp. 263-268 and J.-P. Hocké: “Humanitarian action: protection and assistance”, in *IRRC*, No. 238 (Jan.-Feb. 1984), pp. 11-17.

approaches it makes to the authorities. To separate assistance from protection could only do harm to the victims.<sup>7</sup>

Since governments and opposition movements tend to accept assistance, which is often in their immediate interests, more readily than they do requests for the protection of groups they consider as enemies, the authorities on either side may attempt to take advantage of such a separation and accept relief while rejecting attempts to provide protection to victims. The Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement can resist this tendency common to all authorities and organizations only by maintaining a consistent attitude which seeks to serve the interests of **all** victims and does everything possible to prevent those authorities or organizations from giving special preference to any one category of protected persons.

Some critics accuse the ICRC of inflexibility and “narrow legalism”. They argue that its insistence on linking assistance and protection tends to alienate States, which then look elsewhere for help. Furthermore, they feel that this “dogmatic” attitude tends to force National Societies into inactivity while other bodies such as international organizations, churches and non-governmental agencies are busy helping, thus casting discredit on the National Societies in public opinion.

In reply to these criticisms, the ICRC points first of all to its long-term credibility, which is inseparable from its responsibility towards the victims. Can such credibility be enjoyed by a National Society serving as a “front” for its government? Placing the emphasis on efficiency alone—acting quickly and doing a great deal—might lead to the down-grading of the **specifically Red Cross** nature of the action taken. Adherence to its criteria for intervention and to the Fundamental Principles constitute the long-term guarantee of the permanence of the Movement.

The provision of assistance is a rather delicate matter, which is particularly subject to political pressure. If we are not very careful,

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<sup>7</sup> “*The relief operations of the ICRC are inseparable from its visiting and information activities, all mutually complementary and supportive. Just as a relief operation could be diffuse and ineffective unless based on an exact knowledge of the needs, identity and numbers of the victims, so collection of the relevant information would fail in its purpose unless coupled with assistance.*” André Durand: *History of the International Committee of the Red Cross—From Sarajevo to Hiroshima*. Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva, 1984, p. 470.

The example of the Allied blockade during the Second World War illustrates this point perfectly. Mass relief shipments for prisoners of war in German hands were authorized only when the ICRC had furnished proof that it was capable of *verifying* their distribution (an essential aspect of protection activities), that is, when it had access to the camps.

prejudice, bias, and even personal interest may override protection, and therefore the interests of the victims. Thus the argument about “protection and assistance” brings out the vital importance of the three major principles or causes that the Red Cross must defend:

- defence of the **victims**, respect for life and human dignity;
- preservation of **unity** within the Movement;
- the **long-term** preservation of the credibility of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

It is for this reason that in drawing up the Statutes of the Movement and agreements between the ICRC and the League care was taken:

- not to allocate responsibilities in terms of “assistance” and “protection”, since these two concerns are so closely interwoven, but according to **situations** and whether or not a **neutral intermediary** is required;
- to make a clear distinction between responsibilities and activities: in a conflict situation for example, the management of international operations is the responsibility of the ICRC, although it is understood that the latter will involve National Societies as closely as possible in its activities.

Compliance with these guidelines has done more than to clarify the distribution of responsibilities within the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement; above all it has strengthened protection for the victims of war and armed conflicts of all kinds.

**Jean-Luc Blondel**

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**Jean-Luc Blondel** was born in 1953. He has studied in Lausanne, Göttingen and Washington and holds a doctorate in theology. He has been an ICRC delegate since 1982 and has carried out missions to El Salvador, Jerusalem and southern Africa. He is currently engaged in specialized study with the National Societies and Principles Division of the ICRC, studying matters involving Red Cross.



# The right to humanitarian assistance

## – Legal aspects –

by Dr. Boško Jakovljević

### Introduction

Throughout history man has been exposed to all kinds of disasters; but in modern times mankind has become aware of its responsibility towards those struck by disasters, and of its increased capability of coping with their consequences. Out of this growing awareness arose the concept of humanitarian assistance as a reflection of solidarity; this was followed by the formulation of legal rules governing such activity. Parallel to the need to provide humanitarian assistance is the corresponding right to such assistance.

Humanitarian assistance can be provided at the national or international levels; this applies also to the legal rules governing such activities. Rules relating to national humanitarian assistance may vary widely between countries. Our concern in this article will be to examine the international rules which are important to the Red Cross and the Red Crescent as a world movement.

Responsibility for rendering humanitarian assistance remains with the local communities and States where disasters occur. International humanitarian assistance becomes necessary where the State involved encounters difficulties in assuming this responsibility alone, and when it considers that international action could successfully supplement and complement national efforts, always respecting national sovereignty. Such assistance may also be given if

provided for by treaty, and under the terms specified in such a treaty, as is the case in armed conflicts.<sup>1</sup>

## Definition of humanitarian assistance

There is no generally accepted definition of humanitarian assistance. Further efforts should be made to arrive at such a definition, which would serve as a useful basis for legal rules covering the conduct of action taken in that sphere. The definition should comprise several elements tending to ensure respect for certain basic human rights, thus creating conditions indispensable for keeping people alive, in good health and in safety. Such action should be taken in cases where a large number of persons are affected. Humanitarian assistance should be an action called for by extraordinary circumstances (i.e., an emergency), in which normal services are unable to function properly to satisfy the basic needs of the population affected.

Assistance should be viewed in its wider meaning, as an action helping others to overcome difficulties that arise suddenly. It should be organized and systematic, to avoid the disadvantages of improvised action, and should include measures of preparedness for any situation as well as preventive measures. Naturally, if nothing has been organized before the disaster strikes, improvised measures could be taken, but only as an exception.

Assistance should cover various types of activities. In particular, it should include the supply of material goods to meet vital necessities, such as food, clothing, shelter, medicaments, and even money to purchase such goods. At the same time, humanitarian assistance should include services, in particular medical assistance, social welfare services, civil defence against the effects of war or disaster (rescue, firefighting, etc.), tracing services, the reunification of families and the like.<sup>2</sup> This list is not exhaustive: other types of

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<sup>1</sup> The Geneva Conventions for the protection of war victims of 12 August 1949, and the Additional Protocols to those Conventions of 8 June 1977, are international instruments that create an obligation to provide humanitarian assistance and lay down the conditions for such assistance.

<sup>2</sup> For a list of goods that may be sent as humanitarian assistance see, for instance, *the Draft Convention on Expediting the Delivery of Emergency Assistance*, Art. 1, para. 1 (c) (Document for the General Assembly of the United Nations, A/39/267/Add. 2, of June 18, 1984. For services see, for instance, *the 1949 Geneva Conventions*.

humanitarian assistance may also be provided if the specific situation requires.

Humanitarian assistance should be distinguished from humanitarian protection, which is aimed at ensuring respect for the rights of victims on the part of those who infringe their basic human rights. However, humanitarian assistance and protection often go hand in hand, since effective assistance presupposes timely securing of rights, while the protection of certain rights involves the provision of goods and services which constitute the essence of assistance. It is therefore not always possible to make a clear distinction between the two.<sup>3</sup>

Humanitarian assistance is designed to alleviate the immediate effects or consequences of disasters, whether man-made or natural. It is followed by rehabilitation, a gradual return to the conditions which existed prior to the disaster. The borderline between assistance and rehabilitation has to be fixed in each particular case, taking into account the criteria on which each type of action is based.

International humanitarian assistance is carried out by States or by various international organizations, inter-governmental or non-governmental. Without their involvement humanitarian assistance may fail to materialize. Thus international organizations are an indispensable factor in humanitarian assistance. Such organizations may be humanitarian, rendering this kind of assistance as one of their primary objectives, (e.g., the ICRC), or they may have some other *raison d'être*, but perform certain humanitarian tasks too (e.g., the United Nations, which is a political organization, or the European Economic Community).<sup>4</sup>

## Human rights

The contemporary world has developed a framework of basic human rights, set out in the International Bill of Human Rights and in other instruments containing legal rules relative to such rights. There is no special mention in these instruments of a right to humanitarian assistance in cases of emergency. As an expression of

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<sup>3</sup> On this point, see the article by Jean-Luc Blondel, *Assistance to protected persons* that appears in this issue. See pp. 451-468.

<sup>4</sup> The *International Congress on Peace and Humanitarian Actions* organized by the San Remo International Institute of Humanitarian Law in September 1986, brought out the great number of organizations of different kinds that are involved in humanitarian activities.

the growing awareness of the need to come to the assistance of victims of disasters, it could be understood that the right to humanitarian assistance is implied in the entire system of basic human rights. If the rights to one's life, to the basic exigencies of life, to health, food, shelter, social security, and special protection of family and children <sup>5</sup> are to be granted in every situation, these rights should be recognized also in emergencies, when they are seriously threatened or violated. The system of basic human rights does not make provision for different situations; it enjoins States to ensure and protect these rights in every kind of situation. When a disaster makes special, extraordinary and supplementary efforts necessary to ensure enjoyment of basic human rights, there is an obligation on the part of all concerned to apply such additional efforts. Humanitarian assistance is action that includes a series of measures required by the emergency, which in a normal situation would not be required. The right to humanitarian assistance could be considered as a supplementary right, serving to ensure the maintenance of several basic human rights when the situation so requires.

For the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, the right to humanitarian assistance is of fundamental importance, because the Red Cross was created and has developed in order to provide humanitarian assistance.

## **The right to humanitarian assistance**

It might be appropriate to recognize the right to humanitarian assistance at the global level, because the destiny of a population in any part of the world is of concern to everybody, that is, to all other peoples. The solidarity that binds nations is not usually limited to regional levels; it is worldwide, especially in the case of major disasters. It should be regulated by the rules of international law, which are the backbone of efficient and well-developed action.

It would not be sufficient merely to recognize the right to humanitarian assistance; an effort should be made to work out in detail the rights and duties of the various groups involved in an operation to provide such assistance, both the victims and the

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<sup>5</sup> See, in particular, the *International Bill of Human Rights*; Articles 3, 16 (3), and 25 of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*; Articles 9, 10, 11 and 12 of the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*; Articles 6, 7, 10 and 24 of the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*.

organizers of the operation. Only in this way can the right to humanitarian assistance be complete. Some of the rights and duties, and matters to be settled in relation to them, are listed below:

- The right of victims to demand humanitarian assistance in cases when their basic human rights cannot be ensured by regular services;
- the question whether the victims themselves or others acting on their behalf are authorized to demand humanitarian assistance;
- the conditions under which humanitarian assistance becomes necessary, generally when the population is not adequately supplied with basic necessities;
- the right and the duty to offer humanitarian assistance;
- the types of assistance to be rendered to satisfy basic needs;
- the duty of States to authorize the transit of shipments and personnel;
- the procedure for demanding and for deciding whether to provide humanitarian assistance;
- the procedure for the reception and utilization of humanitarian assistance;
- various facilities for the goods and personnel necessary to develop this activity;
- monitoring the use made of the assistance to ensure that this is in conformity with agreed objectives;
- the status of personnel involved in humanitarian assistance activities;
- international co-ordination of humanitarian assistance.

We believe that in the absence of rules covering all these questions, the right to humanitarian assistance would not be complete.

Humanitarian assistance is aimed at ensuring and restoring certain basic human rights. It contributes to reaffirming the dignity and equality of men. It is a peaceful, constructive, international activity developed on the basis of solidarity and the principle of humanity, one of the principles that underlies many other legal systems. It thus opposes violence and contributes to the establishment of peaceful relations in the world.

International rules concerning humanitarian assistance have developed very differently in relation to armed conflicts as opposed

to peacetime disasters, so they should be examined separately. This difference has direct bearing on the right to humanitarian assistance as a human right.

## **Humanitarian assistance in wartime**

Legal rules for the protection of the right to humanitarian assistance in time of war are based on the general and long-term interest of all States in ensuring the protection of their nationals when they are victims of war. Such rules represent an effort to counteract the constant increase in the effects of war. They regulate the conduct both of the States party to a conflict and of neutral powers, because they are all participants in humanitarian assistance activities.

These rules of law are closely connected with the international organizations or bodies whose task it is to ensure and render humanitarian assistance.

The body of law concerning humanitarian assistance in wartime is very highly developed, for many reasons. In time of war, normal relations between States are suspended; the nature of war deprives the populations of the parties to the conflict of normal protection. Thus the establishment of special rules became indispensable. Furthermore, the ICRC from its very beginning has provided the initiative for building up a body of law protecting war victims and making the development of humanitarian assistance possible. Throughout the history of the development of international humanitarian law, there has always existed a driving force: the ICRC, backed up by the whole International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, which fought for the establishment of rules inspired by the principle of humanity. These include the rules pertaining to humanitarian assistance.

The body of law relative to humanitarian assistance today is largely contained in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their Additional Protocols of 1977.

The characteristic feature of the rules of humanitarian assistance in time of war is that they are not the same for different categories of war victims. The civilian population in general, mothers and children, pregnant women, the civilian population of occupied territories, civilians in the hands of the enemy, civilian internees, wounded and sick of all categories who require medical assistance, prisoners of war—these are the main categories of war victims, each subject to different rules. These rules cover the con-

ditions for demanding humanitarian assistance, the types of goods and services to which the victims are entitled, regulation of passage of goods, the frequency at which shipments are permitted, the status of personnel engaged in such activities and other points. These differences arise from the different circumstances in which the victims find themselves. For instance, prisoners of war are entirely in the hands of the enemy and rules governing their treatment must include detailed regulations, which for other categories are not necessary. Another example relates to children under the age of fifteen, who have the right to receive relief on more favourable terms than the population in general. Wounded and sick prisoners or internees are entitled to ask for medical examination. Civilians in general have the right to be supplied with medicines; this is particularly important for the population of occupied territories because of the specific conditions prevailing in such cases. These various rules, which represent only a few examples, were all formulated on the basis of the very long experience of bodies engaged in humanitarian assistance, in particular the Red Cross and Red Crescent.

The body of law concerning humanitarian assistance in time of war is extensive and covers various phases of relief activity. These rules form part of the wider legal system of protection of war victims, and their application is subject to the general provisions (field of application, system of control, representatives of prisoners and internees, etc.). One integral part of the law concerning humanitarian assistance is the series of rules relating to the conditions, status and activities of various institutions and services, such as the provisions on the ICRC, the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, the League, other humanitarian and relief societies, the protecting powers and their substitutes, the medical services, civil defence organizations, tracing services and the like.

The question may arise as to whether this body of law, elaborated specially for situations of armed conflict, covers all aspects of humanitarian assistance. Theoretically, one may argue that there are many aspects which are not covered, and that the different rules for different categories should be better harmonized. However, knowing how difficult it has been to arrive at a general agreement, and aware of great differences in approach among the various countries of the world, we consider that the rules on humanitarian assistance contained in the Geneva Conventions and in the Additional Protocols represent the maximum that could be practically achieved. These rules certainly provide for humanitarian assistance,

if applied in good faith. The major problem is not whether there are enough rules, but how to ensure their respect and implementation. This is, of course, a much wider problem, since it applies not only to rules of humanitarian assistance but to all the rules of international humanitarian law. Mass, large-scale, repeated and unpunished violations of this law, affecting a great number of people, is the main problem which should focus our attention. Efforts are being made to remedy this situation. The Twenty-fifth International Conference of the Red Cross in 1986 dealt thoroughly with this very problem. The documents prepared for the Conference, the reports submitted, the discussions and resolutions—all reflected this major concern of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and of the States.<sup>6</sup> However, further efforts on the part of the United Nations, the Movement, the States and all concerned with the plight of war victims are required.

The question may also be raised as to what other rules exist in relation to humanitarian assistance, apart from those contained in the international humanitarian law applicable in situations of armed conflict.

The system of basic human rights applicable in all situations, including those of armed conflict during which such rights are violated on a large scale, should encourage all steps taken to ensure respect for those rights. Humanitarian action is certainly instrumental in the implementation of the right to life and health and the other rights mentioned above. Rules relating to human rights, however, are seldom invoked in wartime, and they have no specific mechanism of implementation adapted to war situations. The system of rules on human rights has developed separately from the system of international humanitarian law, although to a great extent they have the same objectives.

## **The right to humanitarian assistance in wartime**

Does the right to humanitarian assistance in armed conflict exist as a legal right? Many rules contained in the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols, enacted for the benefit of war victims, establish, in our opinion, the right to humanitarian assistance when the situation warrants it. This covers not only

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<sup>6</sup> Twenty-fifth International Conference of the Red Cross, Geneva, 1986: "Respect for International Humanitarian Law", *Report of the ICRC*, Doc. C.I/2/1.2; *Report of the Commission on International Humanitarian Law* to the Plenary Meeting, para. 2.1, pp. 2-5, and the ensuing Resolution, Annex 1.



material rights, which entitle the victims to demand and receive humanitarian assistance, but also rules regulating procedure and organizational questions of vital importance for the exercise of the right. The victims themselves and/or others acting on their behalf (States, protecting powers, the ICRC, the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, organizations of the United Nations system, voluntary agencies, etc.) could initiate the action and develop it.

Here again, the rules are not identical for all categories of victims. Thus, for instance, prisoners of war or civilian internees have the right, directly through their representatives, the protecting powers, the ICRC or the relief societies, of demanding humanitarian assistance. States to whom the victims belong also have the right to initiate international action to ensure that their citizens enjoy the basic right to life, health, etc. Persons protected by the Geneva Conventions may not be compelled to renounce the rights afforded them by the Conventions, including the right to demand humanitarian assistance. Rules governing the operation of humanitarian assistance services, such as the medical service or civil defence organizations, permit personnel of these services to go where the victims are, in order to ascertain their needs and, if necessary, render them humanitarian assistance.

All these rules concerning the work of various organizations and services are supplementary to material rights and together with them make up a body of law providing for the right to humanitarian assistance. To these should be added the duties incumbent on different parties to offer and render humanitarian assistance, such as the duty of the occupying power to ensure satisfactory conditions of life, the duty of all States party to the Conventions to allow free passage of relief shipments under the conditions set forth in those instruments, the duty of the protecting power to mediate in order to ensure that humanitarian assistance is provided, the duty of the ICRC to offer humanitarian assistance when it considers that this is necessary and possible, the duty of medical services to perform their professional work, etc. All these rights and duties put together constitute the body of law permitting and regulating humanitarian assistance activities, thus providing for exercise of the right to humanitarian assistance. These rules may not be perfect,<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>7</sup> See the *Report of the Committee on International Medical and Humanitarian Law of the International Law Association*, Montreal Conference (1982), para. 17, indicating some of the questions to be regulated in international relief operations in time of war.

they are sometimes rather complicated, but they still represent a solid legal basis, and one could conclude, *de lege lata*, that the right to humanitarian assistance in international armed conflicts does exist.

Speaking *de lege ferenda*, there is also room for further development. Rules similar to those relating to international armed conflicts should be elaborated and adopted for non-international armed conflicts, because the existing rules are certainly not sufficient to ensure the right to humanitarian assistance in this type of armed situation.

## **Humanitarian assistance in peacetime**

The need for humanitarian assistance also exists in peacetime. There are many categories of victims of natural disasters and technical disasters, and also of situations caused by the combination of several factors such as drought, erosion of large areas of land, armed conflict and political tension, which can produce great numbers of refugees and displaced persons. Refugees in general, whose number is constantly on the increase in the world, and the mass movement of populations also create situations which have consequences similar to those of large-scale disasters, and thus require organized humanitarian assistance.

The international community is responding to these needs too. Efforts to provide humanitarian assistance are undertaken when needed by governments, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations. The United Nations Organization, its specialized agencies and other bodies of the system certainly play an important role in providing humanitarian assistance in peacetime emergencies, and there is a body specially created for that purpose, Undro. Regional political and economic organizations, in particular the European Economic Community, are also very active in this field.

Among non-governmental organizations, the most important role is played by the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, which in a way specialized in disaster relief and is permanently on duty for such emergencies. Other organizations, particularly Church organizations, are also active in this sphere.

In peacetime there is no humanitarian assistance body or organization at the international level which can mobilize, direct and co-ordinate or harmonize disaster relief arriving from a large number of sources, governmental and non-governmental. Undro has a

mandate to provide such co-ordination, not only within the UN system, but also as far as other sources are concerned. However, this mandate does not include the mobilization and management of all relief throughout the world. Furthermore, Undro, because of its status as an office of the UN Secretariat, has neither the material means nor the legal power to be an overall co-ordinator of humanitarian assistance in the wide sense of the term, including services. In many cases, some of the UN agencies play a leading role, but being specialized in certain fields, they cannot take over the general co-ordination and management of all international relief. "The need for co-ordination is not in doubt"; this is generally accepted today.<sup>8</sup>

Within the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, disaster relief is well organized; responsibilities and tasks are harmonized. The League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies is the co-ordinator of disaster relief, while the ICRC is responsible for relief in cases of armed conflict. In mixed situations, these two organizations have to agree as to which of them will act as co-ordinator. This highly developed system was worked out on the basis of practical experience.

The co-ordination of humanitarian assistance from non-Red Cross sources in peacetime is making progress. Although in general the various bodies providing assistance have to act under their own responsibility, it is interesting to note that in recent years there has been an increasing number of examples of co-operation and co-ordination in the field. Such co-ordination between Red Cross and Red Crescent bodies, NGOs, UN agencies and host governments took place in Angola, Ethiopia, Sudan, Thailand and Kampuchea in particular, to ensure effective assistance.

## **Rules relating to humanitarian assistance in peacetime**

With regard to the legal provisions governing international humanitarian assistance, the main feature is the non-existence of any international legal instrument of a general character regulating

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<sup>8</sup> For the mandate of Undro, see *General Assembly of the United Nations*, Resolution 2816 (XXVI) of 4 December 1971, operative para. (1 (b), (c), (d)). The quotation is from Peter Macalister-Smith: *International Humanitarian Assistance*, Martinus Nijhoff, 1985, p. 165; the author goes into this question of co-ordination in more detail. See his article in the present issue: "Non-Governmental Organizations and Co-ordination of Humanitarian Assistance", pp. 501-508.

such activity.<sup>9</sup> By an international convention concluded in 1927,<sup>10</sup> the International Relief Union was created; this was indeed to be a central body for co-ordinating and carrying out peacetime disaster relief. However, that Union remained almost a dead letter, since it did not develop sufficiently in practice. In the United Nations era no similar convention was ever concluded. There are conventions relating to the activities of UN specialized agencies, or specific questions such as accelerated customs procedures or facilities granted to relief shipments sent by aircraft, but nothing covering all aspects of relief action. Certain regional legal instruments, in particular bilateral agreements, do exist. However, international response to major disasters is today worldwide, so there is a need for rules governing all types and aspects of such activity on a universal basis.

The only codification in existence is within the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. The *Principles and Rules for Red Cross Disaster Relief* of 1969,<sup>11</sup> amended several times, are a set of rules regulating not only the principles but also the details of execution, the distribution of responsibilities and the procedure to be followed. This is a good example of codification of guidelines long followed in practice; it is valid, however, only within the Movement.

It may be astonishing that at a time when there are so many international conventions regulating all kinds of activities and relationships, there is no convention on disaster relief covering the principal aspects of this large-scale international activity, so important for innumerable victims around the world. In 1984 Undro made an attempt to draft a convention on expediting the delivery of emergency assistance,<sup>12</sup> but this proposal did not go much further. A draft Inter-American convention to facilitate disaster assistance was also drawn up in 1984.<sup>13</sup> These two drafts do not cover all

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<sup>9</sup> In the *Model Rules for Disaster Relief Operations*, Policy and Efficacy Studies, No. 8, 1982, Unitar, the authors state the following: "The purpose of the Model Rules is to contribute to closing the *lacunae* in international humanitarian law regarding assistance to victims of disasters. While the law of armed conflict sets out rules for protection and assistance to victims of armed conflicts, *no such body of law exists* to cover other disastrous situations" (italics by B.J.).

<sup>10</sup> *The League of Nations Treaty Series*, Vol CXXXV (1932-1933), p. 247. See also Richard Perruchoud: *Les Résolutions des Conférences internationales de la Croix-Rouge*, Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva 1979, pp. 249-251.

<sup>11</sup> See *International Red Cross Handbook*, 12th ed., 1983, p. 488.

<sup>12</sup> See note 2 above.

<sup>13</sup> *The Organization of American States*, Permanent Council, Doc. OAS, Ser. G., CP/doc. 1493/84, 10 September 1984.

aspects of disaster relief, but in the absence of other rules, they are useful attempts to fill some of the gaps. However, whether these drafts will become full-scale conventions remains to be seen.

There are certain model agreements for peacetime disaster relief, such as the Model adopted by the International Law Association in 1980,<sup>14</sup> the Model Rules for Disaster Relief Operations proposed by Unitar in 1982,<sup>15</sup> and the Catholic Relief Services Model Agreement. The idea was that the existence of such models would induce governments to conclude appropriate agreements, the repeated use of which would help create general rules. However, these models are bilateral, while the action needed is multilateral. There is no evidence that such models are followed to an extent likely to lead to the creation of new general rules.

There are many aspects of international disaster relief, including the rendering of humanitarian assistance, which are the subject of our attention. There is the question of the right to humanitarian assistance, the right to humanitarian intervention, and the duty to render humanitarian assistance. But there are also many modalities of international relief action, such as procedure, rules regulating co-operation between various subjects, facilities to be granted to goods and personnel, the status of personnel engaged in such activities, etc. An international agreement could cover only the aspects and issues agreed on by all or by the majority. There are certainly many aspects on which agreement is possible. If the States are not prepared to enter in advance into an obligation to accept an offer of humanitarian assistance, that does not mean that they will not accept it in particular cases of peacetime disaster, when they consider that it is in their interests. The principle of sovereignty will be respected in such situations. An international agreement might come into play precisely in cases where a State accepts offers of international assistance, and the convention or another legal instrument should regulate the modalities of such assistance.

By regulating the various modalities of international disaster relief, an international agreement would facilitate such assistance; it would certainly bring more order to this vast field of international co-operation and become an incentive for the expansion of such action, just as the Geneva Conventions have stimulated humanitarian action on behalf of war victims.

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<sup>14</sup> Committee on International Medical and Humanitarian Law, International Law Association, Belgrade Conference (1980); *Special report on a draft model agreement for humanitarian relief operations*.

<sup>15</sup> See note 9 above.

Various legal forms are possible in this respect: a model agreement for bilateral use; an *ad hoc* agreement for a specific case; an “umbrella agreement” expressing general intentions and principles, the details to be specified when the need arises; a multilateral convention or, if that is not possible, a declaration of principles as a first step. Such legal instruments should cover only questions on which agreement was reached, leaving the way open to further development. These are, of course, *de lege ferenda* considerations.

## **The right to humanitarian assistance in peacetime**

In the absence of specific rules for humanitarian assistance on the global level in peacetime, it is difficult to assert the existence of the right to humanitarian assistance as a legal right, although this could be deduced from some of the basic human rights contained in the International Bill of Human Rights. There are widespread rules of practice in the sphere of humanitarian assistance which have not been codified. We consider that this common practice could be the starting point for an effort to define generally accepted procedure, and on this basis to formulate the corresponding rules. The present sporadic rules on some aspects and some types of humanitarian assistance certainly do not amount to recognition of the right to humanitarian assistance.

## **Concluding remarks**

There is a great and fundamental difference between the legal rules relating to humanitarian assistance in time of armed conflict and those relating to such assistance in time of peace. Although there are reasons for basic difference, it cannot be justified. Furthermore, there are situations which are mixed, caused both by armed conflicts and by natural and other disasters, which bring great suffering to human beings. It is difficult to place them in one or other of the two very different categories of situations. We consider, therefore, that this difference should be a matter of concern for all. It is high time that serious effort was made to arrive at an international instrument for regulating humanitarian assistance in peacetime.

It is thanks to the Red Cross that international humanitarian law has reached its present stage of development. Since its beginnings in 1863, the Red Cross has fought for the development of this law, in parallel with its general activities, and these efforts have been successful. Since the mission of the Red Cross is to protect life and health, in peacetime and particularly in wartime emergencies, it would be appropriate for the Movement to work out corresponding legal rules of humanitarian assistance in time of peace. This would be a counterpart to its efforts to alleviate the suffering of war victims. The Movement would be able to bring not only its wide and long-term experience, but also its sense of reality to bear on the problem; it could draw attention to the realities of the present-day world and to the need to respect these real possibilities and limits. At the same time, however, the Movement would insist that the principle of humanity, and of the supreme importance of the interests of the victims, should prevail and be applied and developed fully, as far as present conditions permit. It should also bring in its practical experience with regard to disaster relief procedures. Of course the Movement should not work alone, but jointly with others. One of the purposes of the United Nations is to achieve international co-operation in solving international problems, including those of a humanitarian nature,<sup>16</sup> and humanitarian assistance in cases of peacetime disaster certainly falls within its mandate. Thus the United Nations Organization cannot avoid its responsibility for improving co-operation in this field, and should undertake appropriate action, more energetically than to date. We believe that such action should include efforts, through one of its bodies or agencies, to conclude an international agreement, or agreements, on humanitarian assistance. A joint effort on the part of the Red Cross, the United Nations and all others concerned should bring progress in this sphere, vital for vast numbers of disaster victims requiring better, more efficient and more rational action,<sup>17</sup> and would certainly contribute to the respect and exercise of some fundamental human rights.

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<sup>16</sup> The United Nations Charter, Article 1 (3).

<sup>17</sup> See, in particular: Peter Macalister-Smith, *op. cit.* In his concluding remarks he states: "The need for co-ordination is not in doubt... Further moves to strengthen the system of co-ordination of humanitarian assistance both within and beyond the United Nations are likely to be necessary, taking into account operational experience" (p. 165). We believe that without an international agreement imposing certain rules of conduct by way of provisions of international law, proper co-ordination is not possible in a world composed of sovereign States.

As far as humanitarian assistance in time of war is concerned, further efforts are necessary particularly to ensure observance of the rules of international humanitarian law, which permit the fuller development of humanitarian assistance. These efforts should be undertaken and sustained by all concerned—the States, individually and collectively, the United Nations, other intergovernmental organizations, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, other non-governmental organizations, and other bodies involved in international relations—and should be concerted. There is a pressing need for such action in the troubled world of today, in which so much human suffering is present. It would contribute to strengthening the role and influence of the principle of humanity, as a bulwark against the rising tide of violence.

**Dr. Boško Jakovljević**

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# Humanitarian action: A delicate balancing act

by Michael A. Meyer

Increasingly a number of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) appear to be demanding the right to provide humanitarian assistance and at the same time the right to denounce any violations of human rights.<sup>1</sup> Whereas these are fine and understandable aspirations, they do not coincide with accepted principles of relief law and practice. This short article will explore certain aspects of this subject, primarily in relation to the treaty law applicable to circumstances of armed conflict and in occupied territories (International Humanitarian Law).<sup>2</sup>

## LACK OF DEFINITION

The treaties relevant to this study, namely the Geneva Conventions 1949 and the Additional Protocols of 1977, do not refer

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<sup>1</sup> This issue was raised at the conference on Law and Humanitarian Ethics held in Paris in January 1987, reported in the March-April 1987 issue of the *International Review of the Red Cross*, No. 257, at pp. 226-229. It was also discussed in the review of Jean-Christophe Rufin's book *Le piège* (*The trap*), by Jean-Luc Blondel, also in the March-April 1987 issue of the *Review*, at pp. 233-235.

<sup>2</sup> Violations of human rights or IHL may be most likely to occur in such situations. Also IHL, more than any other body of law, may be said to contain most of the formal provisions accepted by the majority of States pertaining to humanitarian assistance of the kind offered by NGOs.

expressly to non-governmental organisations.<sup>3</sup> Red Cross and Red Crescent organisations are the only NGOs referred to by name in these agreements, not for the most part to limit activity by other NGOs but to illustrate by example what is meant by a particular category of organisation, such as an aid society or an impartial humanitarian body. Consequently it is necessary to examine the treaty provisions pertaining to humanitarian action and see whether NGOs might qualify thereunder.

### LIMITED RIGHT TO PROVIDE HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

Generally NGOs do not have an automatic right in law to provide humanitarian assistance.

In peacetime, or where International Humanitarian Law (IHL) is not applicable or is not applied, NGOs must ordinarily obtain the consent of the governing authority to their relief operations. This applies to the vast majority of natural disaster, famine, refugee and conflict situations. The Unitar Model Rules for Disaster, Relief Operations<sup>4</sup> and other relief instruments are based on this assumption of official authorisation.

In an armed conflict to which the Geneva Conventions apply, certain types of NGOs are given a limited right to provide humanitarian assistance. The First Geneva Convention of 1949 refers to "relief societies" who are permitted, "even in invaded or occupied areas, spontaneously to collect and care for wounded or sick of whatever nationality." They must respect and protect the wounded and sick "and in particular abstain from offering them violence." No one may be penalized for having helped the wounded and sick.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> One might observe that in any event, there is no entirely satisfactory definition of an NGO. For the purposes of this study, a non-governmental organisation is an organisation not established by a government or by an inter-governmental agreement. It is usually private in nature, composed of members who may be individuals or organisations, has specific objects, and may be national or international. See generally H.H.-K. Rechenberg, "Non-Governmental Organizations" in *Encyclopedia of Public International Law*, Instalment 9 (Amsterdam: North Holland 1986), pp. 276 et seq.

<sup>4</sup> M. El Baradei, et al., *Model Rules for Disaster Relief Operations*, Policy and Efficacy Studies No. 8, United Nations Institute for Training and Research (Unitar), 1982. Also see the *Declaration of Principles for International Humanitarian Relief to the Civilian Population in Disaster Situations*, Twenty-first International Conference of the Red Cross, Istanbul, Resolution XXVI, September 1969. This Declaration reflects many of the accepted principles or relief law and practice.

<sup>5</sup> Art. 18, First Geneva Convention.

The Second Geneva Convention of 1949 contains a similar provision, permitting vessels which have "of their own accord collected wounded, sick or shipwrecked persons [to] enjoy special protection and facilities to carry out such assistance."<sup>6</sup>

Additional Protocol I of 1977 extends the scope of this right of humanitarian action to include all wounded and sick, military and civilian, and to all shipwrecked.<sup>7</sup>

However the NGOs who act on their initiative are still subject to a certain measure of official control.<sup>8</sup> As already noted, they are required to respect the wounded and sick and as appropriate shipwrecked, regardless of nationality and by implication, to stick to their humanitarian mission. These relief societies will receive a certain protection for their humanitarian activities but their actions are likely to be more circumscribed than those of officially authorised aid societies (described below). In particular relief organisations without official authorisation are unable to use the distinctive emblem of the Red Cross or Red Crescent, the use of which is subject to regulation by the Geneva Conventions and their additional Protocols.<sup>9</sup> The absence of the emblem limits the immunities available to these organisations, which in turn may result in limiting their activities. Examples of NGOs which may act on their own initiative to provide humanitarian assistance to the wounded and sick are *Médecins sans Frontières* (MSF) and *Health Unlimited*.

The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has a right, under the relevant Geneva Conventions, to perform certain humanitarian functions in respect of prisoners of war and civil detainees and internees.<sup>10</sup> As explained later, the ICRC also has a

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<sup>6</sup> Art. 21, Second Geneva Convention.

<sup>7</sup> Art. 17, Protocol I. Protocol I also extends a certain general protection to all those engaged in medical activities, even if they are not assigned to medical purposes by a Party to the conflict (Art. 16). Yet unlike authorised medical personnel, civilian or military, medical personnel without an official authorisation from a Party to a conflict will not be respected and protected in all circumstances, and the Parties to a conflict are not required to help and facilitate their humanitarian functions (e.g. see Art. 15, Protocol I).

<sup>8</sup> J. S. Pictet (ed.), *Commentary* [to the First Geneva Convention of 1949], ICRC, Geneva 1952, pp. 190-191.

<sup>9</sup> E.g. Art. 39, 42, 44, First Geneva Convention.

<sup>10</sup> E.g. Art. 126, Third Geneva Convention; Art. 143, Fourth Geneva Convention. But even these rights may be restricted "for reasons of imperative military necessity" albeit temporarily, and the appointment of ICRC delegates must be submitted for the approval of the authority concerned.

right to offer its humanitarian services to the Parties to a conflict.

Under the Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols, the Parties to a conflict are able to authorise certain NGOs to perform specific humanitarian functions under their control. When this occurs, these officially authorised NGOs obtain a recognized status and related privileges which enable them to provide humanitarian assistance in a particular situation and to particular categories of victims, often with the help of the authorities concerned. Such authorised NGOs include the voluntary aid societies which assist the medical services of the armed forces;<sup>11</sup> the officially recognised relief societies which provide hospital ships during armed conflict at sea;<sup>12</sup> relief societies which help prisoners of war;<sup>13</sup> relief societies which assist civilian detainees or internees,<sup>14</sup> and relief societies which serve the inhabitants in occupied territory.<sup>15</sup> Conditions for their operation vary: generally, control is tighter for those which act on or near the scene of battle, such as the voluntary aid societies and the officially recognised relief societies.<sup>16</sup> Normally, however, such organisations will retain their separate identity and civilian

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<sup>11</sup> Art. 26, First Geneva Convention. These voluntary aid societies may also belong to a neutral country; in this case, they will have the previous consent of their own Government and the authorization of the Party to the conflict concerned (Art. 27, First Geneva Convention). Reference to "national voluntary aid societies" is made in Protocol I (Art. 8 (c) (ii)).

<sup>12</sup> Art. 24, Second Geneva Convention. These officially recognised relief societies may also belong to a neutral country; in this case, they will require the previous consent of their own governments and the authorization of the Party to the conflict concerned (Art. 25, Second Geneva Convention).

<sup>13</sup> Art. 125, Third Geneva Convention.

<sup>14</sup> Art. 142, Fourth Geneva Convention.

<sup>15</sup> Art. 63, Fourth Geneva Convention.

<sup>16</sup> For example, strict conditions are placed on those voluntary aid society personnel who have the same protected status under IHL as the permanent medical personnel of the armed forces. These conditions apply both to the voluntary aid society—due recognition and authorisation; notification; control; and to the personnel—same medical duties; exclusive engagement; subject to military law. Although municipal (national) law will ultimately govern the conditions under which voluntary aid society personnel lend their assistance to the medical services of the armed forces and their status, unless other provision is made, such personnel will retain their civilian status. Voluntary aid society personnel engaged in other duties will also have civilian status but without the privileges of those employed on the same duties as the permanent medical personnel of the armed forces, such as the right to use the protective emblem of the red cross or red crescent (First Geneva Convention, Art. 40) and upon capture, the right to the status of retained personnel rather than of prisoner of war (First Geneva Convention, Art. 28; also see Third Geneva Convention, Art. 33).

status.<sup>17</sup> National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies are the most well-known examples of NGOs which may assume one or more of these authorised functions. In addition, for certain purposes, the Sovereign Order of Malta, the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and other groups, both secular and religious, may fit one of the categories of authorised NGOs mentioned.

Generally, authorised aid societies do not have an unlimited right to provide humanitarian assistance under the Geneva Conventions or Protocols: they are subject to regulation by the Party to the conflict to which they belong or by the Occupying Power or Detaining Power. But when authorised societies are able to act, they do so with the support of the relevant authorities and may be able to achieve much.

## RIGHT TO OFFER HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

It may be said that whereas normally NGOs do not have a right to provide humanitarian assistance, in principle impartial humanitarian bodies do have a right to offer it.

Under the Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols, an offer of relief, if made in good faith by an appropriate NGO, should not be regarded as interference in an armed conflict or as an unfriendly act. There is a presumption that such offers should be accepted, for example, where a Party to a conflict is unable to supply civilians in territory under its control with goods indispensable to their survival.<sup>18</sup> However, a relief action cannot be forced upon the receiving State or other Power concerned; as will be discussed later, it is subject to their consent. The preceding also applies to situations not covered by the Geneva Conventions, e.g. situations of natural disasters, internal disturbances, etc.

Perhaps the best established and recognised right to offer humanitarian assistance is the so-called right of initiative of the ICRC. Using this right of initiative to offer its humanitarian ser-

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<sup>17</sup> For example, the property of voluntary aid societies used to help the sick and wounded of the armed forces is in a more advantageous position than the property belonging to the military medical services: it cannot be regarded as war booty or confiscated, and it is subject to only limited rights of requisition and seizure (First Geneva Convention, Art. 34). This illustrates that these societies retain their own personality and status as voluntary, private institutions, although they are closely connected with a Party to a conflict.

<sup>18</sup> E.g. with respect to occupied territory, Art. 59, Fourth Geneva Convention.

vices to a Government or other authority, the ICRC is able to operate in many situations where, for whatever reason, the formal applicability of the Geneva Conventions is denied or is in fact irrelevant. The ICRC's offer of humanitarian assistance is not seen as an unwarranted interference in the affairs of an authority. This right of initiative, which may now be considered part of customary international law,<sup>19</sup> was built on the ICRC's traditional principles of strict neutrality and impartiality and its reputation for integrity, confidentiality and discretion. By adhering to its principles and by maintaining a low public profile, the ICRC has achieved a great deal, striving at all times to act solely in the interest of those it exists to serve, namely, the victims of armed conflict or of internal tensions or disturbances. Exceptionally, when it is considered in the best interest of the victims, the ICRC will publicly denounce violations of IHL.<sup>20</sup> However, such public statements tend to be even-handed, for example referring to violations by both belligerents.<sup>21</sup> Further, even if public statements are issued with the best of intentions, there is doubt about their efficacy in stopping or preventing violations. Ultimately the ICRC, as well as NGOs, must rely on the agreement and action of the governing authorities concerned, including third parties who might bring influence to bear on the belligerents.<sup>22</sup>

## CONDITIONS GOVERNING RELIEF ACTIONS

Legal instruments covering humanitarian action in a variety of circumstances, in peace and in war, show that to be acceptable, such actions must conform to certain criteria. The main requirements are explained briefly below.

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<sup>19</sup> See generally, Y. Sandoz, "Le droit d'initiative du Comité international de la Croix-Rouge", *German Yearbook of International Law* (1979), pp. 352-373. See, also, *Statutes of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement* 1986, Arts. 5 (2) (d) and 5 (3); ICRC Statutes, 1973, as revised, Arts. 4 (1) (d) and 4 (2).

<sup>20</sup> ICRC, "Action by the International Committee of the Red Cross in the Event of Breaches of International Humanitarian Law", *International Review of the Red Cross*, No. 221, March-April 1981, pp. 76-83.

<sup>21</sup> See, for example, Y. Sandoz, "Appel du C.I.C.R. dans le cadre du conflit entre l'Irak et l'Iran", *Annuaire Français de Droit International* (1983), pp. 161-173.

<sup>22</sup> Common Article 1 to the Geneva Conventions 1949 and Article 1 (1) of Protocol I 1977.

## **Existence of a real need**

The existence of a genuine need is a requirement for any relief action. This deters unwelcome or unnecessary interference in a country's internal affairs. Such a need arises, for example, when the civilian population is inadequately provided with certain supplies, such as food and medicine. This matter was at issue in the controversial air drop of relief goods and earlier attempted relief action by sea, by India, to help the Tamil community in the Jaffna peninsula in Sri Lanka in June 1987.<sup>23</sup>

## **Humanitarian**

A relief action must be humanitarian in nature. The ICRC Commentary to Common Article 9/9/9/10 of the Geneva Conventions defines "humanitarian" as "concerned with the condition of man, considered solely as a human being without regard to the value which he represents as a military, political, professional or other unit."<sup>24</sup> A humanitarian activity is "concerned with human beings as such, and must not be affected by any political or military consideration."<sup>25</sup>

## **Impartial**

A relief action must also be impartial. This term seems to relate mainly to the distribution of assistance, based as far as possible on actual need, rather than "by prejudice or by considerations regarding the person of those to whom he gives or refuses assistance."<sup>26</sup> In the context of a relief action during a conflict situation, impartial may mean not designed to give undue advantage to one side, although relief given to only one side does not necessarily mean that the action is partial: much will depend upon the circumstances. The requirement of impartiality applies both to the admission of a relief action and to its conduct.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>23</sup> Even after agreeing to the sending of relief supplies, the Sri Lankan Government insisted that the aid was not needed, accepting it "purely in the interests of good-neighbourly relations". *The Guardian*, London, June 26, 1987, p. 10.

<sup>24</sup> J. S. Pictet (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 108.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 109.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>27</sup> M. Bothe et al., *New Rules for Victims of Armed Conflicts*, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague/Boston/London, 1982, p. 435 [commentary on Art. 70 of Additional Protocol I of 1977].

## No adverse distinction

The prohibition of adverse distinctions applies primarily to the conduct of a relief action. It means that discrimination between recipients cannot be based on criteria such as nationality, race, religion, social status, political or other opinion. However, priority can be given to persons on grounds of medical urgency or of vulnerability, such as children and expectant and nursing mothers.<sup>28</sup>

The difficulties encountered by the ICRC and the United Nations Children's Fund (Unicef) in launching their joint operation in Kampuchea in the autumn of 1979 involved matters of impartiality and adverse distinction, and perhaps also of humanity: both organisations—one NGO, the other an inter-governmental organisation (IGO)—are required by their principles to provide assistance to the victims of any side in a conflict.<sup>29</sup>

## The need for official authorisation

As has been noted previously, both in law and in operational practice, the ability of NGOs to provide humanitarian assistance depends largely upon the consent of the governing authority, such as the government of the territory or region in which the action is to occur. In IHL terms, such an authority might be called a Party to a conflict, a Detaining Power or an Occupying Power; and reference to "each High Contracting Party concerned" might include an adverse Party, a transit State, a blockading Power, the assisting State or the receiving State.<sup>30</sup> When treaty law such as the Geneva Conventions or the Additional Protocols applies, it will be a factor in determining the ability of NGOs to undertake humanitarian action, for example, in setting out the conditions for such action. However, most, if not all, of the relevant provisions enable the authority concerned, such as a Party to a conflict, to refuse or to suspend humanitarian actions by organisations or their representatives. This is most certainly *not* to say that under this treaty law High Contracting Parties are entirely free to refuse or suspend humanitarian assistance: presumptions exist which limit such free-

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<sup>28</sup> See commentary on Art. 12 of the First Geneva Convention, J. S. Pictet (ed.), *op. cit.*, pp. 137-138.

<sup>29</sup> ICRC, *Kampuchea*, Geneva (October 1981), p. 13 and also see p. 6.

<sup>30</sup> E.g. see Art. 70, Protocol I.



dom.<sup>31</sup> However, ultimately the choice is theirs and ordinarily they have the power to enforce their will.

Certain provisions of the Fourth Geneva Convention help to illustrate this requirement of consent by a Party to a conflict to humanitarian activities of any nature. Under Article 30 of the Fourth Convention, relief organisations appear to be entitled to do anything to further the humane treatment of protected civilian persons provided for in Article 27, including representations to the governing authority and other forms of protection activities. However, the authorities can limit such activities for "military or security considerations"<sup>32</sup> The ICRC is in a somewhat better position than other humanitarian organisations.<sup>33</sup> However, to quote from the ICRC Commentary on the Fourth Convention, all relief "organizations, whether national or international, must... strictly avoid, in their humanitarian activities, any action hostile to the Power in whose territory they are working or to the Occupying Power. These principles... govern all forms of relief organized in connection with the Geneva Convention."<sup>34</sup>

This obligation on relief organisations to adhere strictly to their humanitarian activities is enforceable through Article 142 of the Fourth Convention, which entitles the Detaining Power to limit the number of relief organisations operating in its territory.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>31</sup> For example, starvation of civilians as a method of warfare or combat is prohibited (Art. 54, Protocol I and Art. 14, Protocol II respectively). Also, for other parts of a provision to make sense, discretion cannot be unfettered (e.g. see Art. 70 (1), Protocol I), and a treaty must be interpreted in good faith (Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, 1969, Art. 31 (1)). Referring to Art. 18 of Protocol II on relief societies and actions in internal armed conflicts, the United States State Department reported: "This important provision... reflects compromise with those delegations [at the Diplomatic Conference] which were unwilling to accept an unconditional obligation to permit and facilitate relief shipments. For its part, the United States would expect that the requirement of consent by the party concerned would not be implemented in an arbitrary manner, and that essential relief shipments would only be restricted or denied for the most compelling and legitimate reasons" (Message from the President Transmitting Protocol II to the Senate, January 29, 1987, 26 I.L.M., 1987, 561 at 567).

<sup>32</sup> See also Art. 5, Fourth Geneva Convention, which denies the rights of the Convention to, *inter alia*, an individual protected person "definitely suspected of or engaged in activities hostile to the security of the State". Nevertheless such persons are to be treated humanely and retain a right to a fair and regular trial.

<sup>33</sup> See, e.g., Arts. 30 and 143, Fourth Geneva Convention, which authorize the ICRC to visit protected persons.

<sup>34</sup> J. S. Pictet (ed.), *Commentary* [to the Fourth Geneva Convention 1949], ICRC, Geneva, 1958, p. 218.

<sup>35</sup> *Ibid.*

It may be said that in most cases under the Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols, relief organisations are only able to operate if they have some form of governmental authorisation, abstain from political or military activity, and maintain impartiality in their humanitarian work.<sup>36</sup> "Efficacy" may also be a criterion,<sup>37</sup> and a relief organisation can only be effective if it has the continuing authorisation of the governing authority.

In more general terms, humanitarian actions must not violate a State's sovereignty, independence or territorial integrity. The Indian Red Cross official involved with the shipment of relief supplies for Tamils on the Jaffna peninsula recognised this when he said he would not go ahead with the mission without the co-operation of the Sri Lankan authorities.<sup>38</sup>

### **Adherence to governing agreements**

For NGOs to have the consent and assistance of the authorities concerned for their humanitarian work, they must also act in accordance with any governing agreements. These may consist of treaties, such as the Geneva Conventions and Protocol I,<sup>39</sup> and/or an agreement between the NGO and the governing authority.<sup>40</sup> This latter document may limit the permissible activities of the NGO or its personnel to certain specified tasks.

In addition there might be some specific authorisation for the participation of individual relief personnel (as opposed to approval of the general relief action) granted by the State where the personnel will carry out their duties, and this second document may also, in setting forth the terms of their mission, circumscribe their behaviour. The NGO itself may also have an agreement with its personnel, along the same lines.<sup>41</sup> One usual condition for partici-

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<sup>36</sup> See, e.g., Art. 26, First Geneva Convention, on voluntary aid societies and Art. 63, Fourth Geneva Convention, on relief societies in occupied territory.

<sup>37</sup> See, e.g., Art. 61, Fourth Geneva Convention on the distribution of relief consignments.

<sup>38</sup> In fact this may have been quite a courageous act on the part of the Indian Red Cross, an illustration perhaps of the Red Cross Principle of Independence, *The Guardian*, June 3, 1987, p. 6.

<sup>39</sup> See Art. 81 (4), Protocol I.

<sup>40</sup> The ICRC status agreements are an example.

<sup>41</sup> As an illustration, the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies usually concludes agreements with its field personnel, setting out the terms of their mission. If sent by a National Red Cross or Red Crescent Society, these personnel may also have signed a somewhat similar agreement with them.

pation in relief actions is that personnel must respect the law of the country where they are and in particular the security requirements of that country. Thus relief personnel should not jeopardize the general relief action, that is, the authorized work of their organisation, and they should not violate their own terms of mission.

The preceding points are affirmed in the provision in Additional Protocol I of 1977 concerning relief personnel. Article 71 thereof is an important innovation because it gives relief personnel a recognised status under IHL and provided they fulfil certain conditions, protection both from attack and from interference with their work. Such personnel must have the specific approval of the authority of the territory in which they operate. Under no circumstances may relief personnel exceed the terms of their mission, in particular the security requirements of the Party in whose territory they are working, and failure to observe this condition may lead to termination of their work. These requirements help to illustrate that protected status under IHL is the result of governmental authorisation and control.

## DENOUNCING VIOLATIONS OF HUMAN RIGHTS

Does an NGO or its personnel violate the conditions of their humanitarian action if they denounce violations of human rights? It is of course possible to construct an argument saying that such denunciations can be humanitarian in nature and purpose, perhaps even of a supra-national character, and that therefore they do not contravene the conditions of the relief action or terms of mission.

On the other hand, denunciations of human rights are usually viewed by the authority condemned as a political act, regardless of the motivation of the denouncer. Such actions may also be construed as a threat to the security of the authority and more than likely, as going beyond the authorized work of the NGO or its personnel. A relief worker will normally have no recognized standing in law, national or international, to act in this way, thereby adding to his or her vulnerability. The position may be even worse if the NGO and its personnel are alien, both in nationality and in general background, for example, socio-economic and racial.

The NGO and its workers may be doubly resented, and perhaps feared, for interfering in an "internal" or "non-humanitarian" matter. Foreigners are not necessarily welcome in a country, espe-

cially during times of armed conflict, and they may be a source of suspicion and as relief personnel, they may also be an affront to national pride.

As an example, referring again to the relief operation in Sri Lanka, it is reported that the presence of Indian aid personnel in the Jaffna peninsula is a growing irritant to Sri Lanka. The Sri Lankan Prime Minister has talked of the Indian "Trojan horse" and said that "many in the country are asking whether India is trying to achieve by subtle means what she could not do by force."<sup>42</sup>

Thus regardless of the impetus behind a denunciation of a violation of human rights, and of moral, philosophical or even some legal arguments in its support, the fact remains that in the field such action is likely to be viewed by the authority concerned as incompatible with the conditions upon which the NGO is permitted to provide humanitarian assistance. The NGO may then have its work in the country terminated.

### One possible response

Naturally an NGO and its personnel will be loath to stand by and watch violations of basic human rights without acting, regardless of the terms of the relief mission. An approach may be made to the responsible authority, but even if done privately and diplomatically, such action may not be welcomed or heeded. Moreover the NGO or its representative must be careful not to make the situation worse: by protesting about action taken against a single individual, other people or the entire relief operation may be placed at risk. Tacit consent, silence in the face of atrocity, is not advocated. What is suggested is that any response must be considered and perhaps be left to other types of organisations. As an illustration it might be better for an NGO or its personnel to record a violation,<sup>43</sup> pass the information to other bodies whose purpose it is to deal with human rights abuses, such as Amnesty International or the ICRC, and let

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<sup>42</sup> *The Guardian*, July 4, 1987, p. 6.

<sup>43</sup> But even taking of records must be done in ways unlikely to endanger the aid operation. In the relief action in Sri Lanka, the English language press in Colombo, which is said to be influenced by the government, has accused Indian Red Cross personnel of compiling dossiers on alleged disappearances and excesses by government forces. These charges have been denied by the Indian High Commission, *The Guardian*, July 2, 1987, p. 10.

them deal with the authorities about the matter, leaving the NGO or its personnel to attend to essential strictly humanitarian tasks, such as medical care and distribution of food.

If the NGO fears that through its public silence, it will become a party to violations of human rights or IHL, or if it is unable to operate according to its principles, then of course the NGO must consider whether in the circumstances it is necessary to halt its operations and even to withdraw from the country. At that point the NGO may decide it has more to gain than to lose by denouncing violations of human rights or IHL.

### **Practical suggestions**

There are a number of ways in which NGOs might confront this dilemma. Some are as follows.

It seems rather futile, and possibly even detrimental, for NGOs to assert unconditional rights to act when in fact, either such rights are not recognised by law or when in practice, their action can be constrained by the authorities concerned, regardless of the merit of any legal or moral arguments in support of their position. Once the perhaps grim reality of the situation is faced, NGOs may take steps to find ways to achieve their aims within the existing legal and political structure. For example, through better understanding of IHL, NGOs may decide to seek official recognition as voluntary aid societies or other authorised relief bodies under the Geneva Conventions or Protocols. This may help to enhance their operations and own protection.

For an NGO to recognise its limits is also important to its reputation, and the reputation of an NGO can be crucial to its ability to provide humanitarian assistance and to raise difficulties, such as allegations of human rights abuses, with the authorities. To be able to provide humanitarian assistance, a relationship of trust or confidence must be established between the NGO and the authority concerned. NGOs must demonstrate their adherence to the conditions of relief actions, in particular they must scrupulously avoid involvement in political affairs. NGOs must be sensitive to the fears of the authorities, and seek to engage, at least in the first instance, in constructive, confidential dialogue or other appropriate action rather than in public denunciation. They should emulate the policy of the ICRC, that is, consider the interests of those they set out to assist as primordial. An illustration of the importance of the

reputation of an NGO is the fact that in situations of tension or conflict around the world—for example, in the United Kingdom, South Africa and Colombia—the red cross emblem will have a protective value for members of National Societies, enabling them to help each side, regardless of the formal legal position. This also shows that the principles of an organisation, and its demonstrated willingness to abide by them, may often matter more than the strict legal position.<sup>44</sup>

On a more concrete level, NGOs might establish Guidelines for Action or a Code of Practice which covers the situation of violations of human rights or of humanitarian law. These might be individual to each NGO or agreed among a number of NGOs. The ICRC's own guidelines for action in the event of breaches of IHL<sup>45</sup> might serve as a model for such documents. NGOs will need to consider their own specific competences and limits, and set priorities, defining when and how to report particular alleged violations. Action, and the basis for action, may vary according to the situation.

Channels and modes of communication for reporting alleged violations between NGOs, or with others concerned, such as the media, neutral governments and the government of the NGO, may need to be developed or strengthened.

National and international legal instruments might be adopted in order to define the status of NGOs and their workers and if possible the action each may take if they witness violations of human rights or IHL. These might make clear that a confidential report by the NGO to the authority concerned about alleged abuses is not to be considered a political act, or beyond the terms of their humanitarian mission. The same principle, possibly together with agreed procedures for reporting violations, might be included in any agreement between the NGO and the authority of the territory in which it seeks to operate. It is appreciated that such an agreement may not be possible in every instance.

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<sup>44</sup> There may be developing customary law to the effect that the red cross or red crescent emblems will have a protective value if displayed by authorised persons or units in circumstances of internal conflict, at least in those situations covered by Common Article 3 to the Geneva Conventions even if these situations are below the threshold of application of Protocol II. More controversially, but not without foundation, this postulated customary rule might also be said to apply to internal disturbances and tensions to which international human rights instruments are applicable but to which Common Article 3 does not apply.

<sup>45</sup> See footnote 20 *supra*.

Existing documents, such as the 1982 Unitar Model Rules,<sup>46</sup> the 1980 International Law Association model relief agreement and the 1984 Draft Convention on expediting the delivery of emergency assistance, could be used as a basis for any new instruments on particular issues. Declarations or resolutions of international and regional organisations, and by the International Conference of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, might also prove helpful. A National Charter for Volunteers is another potentially useful idea.

Training of NGO personnel, both in the relevant substantive law or other regulations governing their mission, and in procedures, such as how and when to record and to communicate violations, also seems important. Indeed such training seems vital in order to ensure respect for the various rules and practices in the field. Red Cross and Red Crescent organisations, including National Societies, might have a role in helping to provide such instruction, as part of their dissemination activity.

### A DELICATE BALANCING ACT

Action by NGOs in the face of violations of human rights or IHL may, in the end, come down to the specific atrocity or potential atrocity. From legal and operational viewpoints it is likely that under current rules and practices, it will be unacceptable for NGOs or their personnel to make a public denunciation and then to be allowed to continue their humanitarian mission. However, there are occasions when the provision of soup may be less important than bringing the attention of the media to violations of human rights. If after every relevant consideration affecting the relief operation has been evaluated, a genuine crisis of conscience occurs, and there is no other alternative, a protest may be made. But this should be done in full knowledge of the likely consequences of such action, to the NGO, to any other humanitarian organisation working in the same location, to NGO personnel in the field and most of all, to the people the NGO is attempting to assist. Action by NGOs when confronted by violations of human rights or IHL should, ideally, be pre-planned and well-considered, taking into account all the possible ramifications, long-term and short-term.

Any generally accepted rules on humanitarian assistance will reflect a balance between humanitarian and sovereign interests.

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<sup>46</sup> See footnote 4 *supra*.

IHL including its provisions on relief actions, has proved successful over the years because it reflects a largely acceptable balance between humanitarian interests and the realities of combat or occupation. An NGO cannot have the privileges of authorised aid societies without also having the restrictions. A compromise is required. Special protected status for aid personnel and facilitation of their work by the authorities necessitates a measure of official authorisation and control. The relief societies of most liberation movements or dissident groups are subject to such restrictions imposed by the related political or military authority, including the "Palestinian Red Crescent", the "Khmer Red Cross", the "Sah-raoui Red Crescent", the "Moro Red Crescent", the "Relief Society of Tigre" and the "Eritrean Red Cross-Red Crescent Society". The doctors and nurses from NGOs, such as Aide Médicale Internationale and Médecins du Monde, which seldom request or obtain official permission for their work, may become targets for regimes that are openly hostile to their missions of mercy. To date it seems that the balance achieved in the Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols is the best that can be agreed. This may not be ideal from a purely humanitarian viewpoint but given the realities of situations when relief is required, especially perhaps during an armed conflict, it may be the only way at this time to attain any humanitarian objectives.

**Michael A. Meyer**

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# Non-Governmental Organizations and Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance

by Peter Macalister-Smith

Humanitarian assistance in armed conflict and other disasters can involve a great variety of institutions and participants all operating simultaneously, including national civil defence organizations, military units, Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, international governmental organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

Coordination of humanitarian assistance is therefore inevitably a complex and delicate matter, all the more so because the concept of coordination, like that of disaster preparedness generally, is relevant to both donor and recipient parties.

The success of coordination can do much to remove the confusion which may accompany humanitarian assistance operations, although to a certain extent some such confusion is by definition inherent in all disaster situations where relief actions are required. Since it is not questioned that the overall effectiveness of humanitarian assistance operations can be improved by coordination designed to take into account the contribution of the many different organizations and forms of relief administration involved, an important problem of humanitarian action at the global level is to define and to achieve the most appropriate national and international coordination mechanisms.

## Non-governmental organizations

As far as NGOs are concerned, the subject of coordination of humanitarian assistance includes both coordination *inter se*, or within the non-governmental sector, and wider coordination in which non-governmental actions are coordinated with those of the other organizations and actors involved, including governments, in what might be described as the global humanitarian system.

The many NGOs active in humanitarian affairs undoubtedly constitute an important part of the global humanitarian network. It is well known that NGOs are among the best-informed groups. They can function by bringing problems to light, by mobilizing contributions and by taking direct action. NGOs work in all types of humanitarian situations, and in some respects they are less circumscribed by constraints than official bodies. However, the NGO sector is not homogeneous, but consists of organizations representing many different interests. The wide diversity of humanitarian NGOs enables resources to be provided rapidly in case of need from a variety of sources, but this very diversity also introduces a further degree of confusion into humanitarian operations.

Some humanitarian NGOs such as the church groups are themselves federations representing their members in a centrally organized process in which coordination functions are already in-built. More generally, cooperation and coordination between NGOs themselves, and between NGOs and the other organizations and actors involved in the humanitarian field, has always been extensive and it remains so today. Such cooperation and coordination is based on a long tradition of shared experiences; it is an essential feature of everyday working activities, and it continues to be developed to include not only planning but also operational aspects of humanitarian action.

Notwithstanding the considerable competition in humanitarian matters, the major international humanitarian NGOs have increasingly attempted to work out among themselves methods of cooperation and coordination applicable to the various phases of humanitarian action. This is being achieved gradually and without creating a "super-organization". At the same time, it is appropriate and important to consider the place of NGOs in coordination of humanitarian assistance in the wider sense, in which the other organizations and actors are involved.

## National responsibilities

Important responsibilities for coordination of humanitarian assistance are exercised at the national level, within the framework of which NGOs must always operate. Indeed, it seems that an improved international system can be based only on the development of successful solutions at the national level, although of course national and international efforts should be complementary and mutually reinforcing. Any success in achieving better coordination between the international agencies involved can easily be destroyed by the failure or the shortcomings of a national coordination office in a particular disaster situation. Here, the problems of local coordination in the field are a special subject for attention.

National relief coordination includes on the one hand the general aspect of coordination procedures between the country concerned and the external or foreign level, and on the other hand the specific aspect of coordination functions in the course of a given relief operation. In both cases it is necessary to take into account not only bilateral and multilateral activity but also the existence of official and private actors. Although the national authorities concerned should provide the principal coordinating mechanisms, in practice a variety of governmental, Red Cross and Red Crescent, and private or non-governmental approaches and arrangements are often to be found coexisting. In some countries, the non-governmental agencies active in relief have set up their own coordination mechanisms, with or without the involvement of the National Red Cross or Red Crescent Society.

In countries where sufficient attention has been given to pre-disaster planning, the necessary coordination functions are likely to be adequately performed. The national plan setting out emergency relief procedures should envisage coordination through a central responsible office. The functions of a coordinating office established by the authorities have been given much attention by the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. A particular duty of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies is to ensure that a national plan exists and that it includes the necessary elements relating to coordination.

## Red Cross and Red Crescent approaches

The Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement is involved in coordination of humanitarian assistance at all levels: national, bilateral, regional and international. Such coordination, although strictly internal in objective and effect, reaches out beyond the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement since all coordination functions must be designed to take into account the activities of the many other organizations and actors concerned. This reflects the simple fact that, like individuals, no organization can act in isolation but must constantly seek awareness of the actions of others in order to be effective.

At the national level, the Red Cross or Red Crescent Society is often a major operating agency if not the principal one responsible for relief action, and hence a National Society is likely to have a central position in the national system of coordination. At the regional level, coordination of humanitarian assistance falls within the general field of disaster-related cooperation, which includes not only relief but also preparedness and prevention activities. At the international level, not only does coordination take place between the various components of the Movement, but at this level assistance by the Movement is also coordinated with that of other organizations and actors in the global humanitarian system. In practice, this general aspect of relief coordination includes relationships, *inter alia*, with numerous NGOs.

As to internal coordination, the *Principles and Rules for Red Cross Disaster Relief* form a detailed code designed to regulate the planning, coordination and operation of the Movement's relief policy and operations.<sup>1</sup> The Principles and Rules provide that every relief operation carried out by the Movement in situations of war, civil war or internal disturbance shall be regulated by the provisions of the 1969 Agreement between the League of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and the ICRC which specifies certain of their respective functions.<sup>2</sup> This Agreement, which has its basis in the fact that possible areas of overlap of functions between the ICRC and the League can arise, recognizes that when a neutral

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<sup>1</sup> Text in *International Red Cross Handbook* (12th ed., Geneva 1983), pp 488-494.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 475-480.

intermediary is necessary, it is up to the ICRC to act as coordinator. In other situations, the coordination functions of the League itself are designed to facilitate the international assistance provided through the National Society network, these functions deriving naturally from the League's federal role within the Movement. The Principles and Rules emphasize that the Movement should endeavour to take into account the help given by other national and international organizations, while remaining true to its principles.<sup>3</sup>

## Role of the United Nations

In 1971 the United Nations General Assembly established the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator (Undro), and laid down the Co-ordinator's mandate.<sup>4</sup> Undro was created to be the focal point in the UN system for disaster-related matters. All organizations within the UN system, as well as other organizations concerned, were invited to cooperate with the new office. Recognizing that non-governmental activities could be coordinated not only on an *inter se* basis but also with those of governments, the resolution establishing Undro authorized the Disaster Relief Co-ordinator to coordinate UN assistance with that given by NGOs.<sup>5</sup>

Under the terms of the Co-ordinator's mandate, Undro was thus brought into contact not only with UN bodies and governments, but also with NGOs. Undro has relations with most elements of the international humanitarian system, of which the United Nations is only one part. However, the type of coordination which may originally have been envisaged by the United Nations has not yet been developed, although positive developments have taken place and contacts and cooperation between the governmental and non-governmental sectors continue to be expanded. Undro regularly convenes information meetings on operational situations where humanitarian assistance is being provided, at which representatives of governments, intergovernmental organizations and NGOs are present.

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<sup>3</sup> Principles and Rules for Red Cross Disaster Relief, para. 6 in *International Red Cross Handbook*, *op. cit.*, p. 489.

<sup>4</sup> UN General Assembly Res. 2816 (XXVI) of 14 December 1971.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, sub-para. 1 (a), (c) and (g).

Coordination possibilities between the United Nations and NGOs also exist by virtue of the consultative arrangements with NGOs which have been laid down by the UN itself and by various UN specialized agencies and subsidiary organs. Article 71 of the UN Charter sets the basis for regulating NGO association with the work of the UN Economic and Social Council.<sup>6</sup> The system of consultation is intended to permit the securing of information and advice from organizations with particular competences. In the humanitarian field, several UN bodies have established particularly close relations with NGOs, and with the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. While the difference between truly effective participation on the one hand and the present arrangements for consultation on the other hand is still a fundamental one, considerable progress has been made in the area of direct collaboration in humanitarian matters. At the same time, the main contribution of NGOs in the humanitarian field remains outside the UN framework and firmly within their own sphere of activity.

## **Role of other organizations**

Several regional organizations have taken measures relating to coordination of humanitarian assistance within their region, in which NGOs may be involved. The association of NGOs with governmental bodies, for example in receiving funds for specified purposes or in carrying out operational tasks on behalf of such bodies, greatly increase the scope of NGO actions. Such association extends not only the overall contribution of the NGO sector in humanitarian matters, but also the scope of and possibilities for coordination of humanitarian assistance. Particular examples of developments which could be mentioned in this regard include measures taken within the Council of Europe, by the European Economic Community and by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Other governmental organizations

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<sup>6</sup> Art. 71 of the Charter of the United Nations: "The Economic and Social Council may make suitable arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within its competence. Such arrangements may be made with international organizations and, where appropriate, with national organizations after consultation with the Member of the United Nations concerned."—See also UN Economic and Social Council Res. 1296 (XLIV) of 27 May 1968, which revised the system of consultation.

such as the Organization of African Unity, the Organization of American States and the Association of South-East Asian Nations have all at times acted in a general coordinating capacity with regard to humanitarian assistance, including coordination with regard to NGO activities.

## **Some conclusions**

The great variety of organizations capable of contributing to humanitarian assistance, as well as the great potential scale and complexity of relief operations, clearly demonstrate the need for coordination of humanitarian assistance. Although major responsibilities for the planning, implementation and coordination of relief action rest with national authorities, the concept itself of international coordination of humanitarian assistance is not in question.

For these reasons alone, and whatever future developments take place in the field of humanitarian action, it seems certain that the need to maintain and improve the coordination mechanisms at the national and international levels will remain for the foreseeable future.

Yet while the need for coordination within the international relief system is generally accepted, it has proved difficult in practice to define coordination more closely, and to agree on the necessary action. Probably no one would deny being in favour of coordination of humanitarian assistance in principle, but the real problems arise in practice in determining who shall coordinate and who shall be coordinated.

The political problems inherent in many situations where humanitarian assistance is required create additional difficulties for all coordination activities. Indeed, even the basic task of transmitting information can raise not only questions of the limits of institutional independence, for example with respect to verification or assessment of needs, but also the possibility of differences with official sources, thereby further complicating the process of coordination.

Within this process NGOs have a major role, both in terms of coordination in the non-governmental sector and with regard to coordination with the other organizations and actors involved in humanitarian assistance.

Despite all the difficulties, the potential benefits to be gained from effective coordination of humanitarian assistance are many and great. This potential suggests that continuing efforts to strengthen the system of coordination of humanitarian assistance are likely to be made by all concerned, taking into account the lessons derived from ever-accumulating operational experience.

**Peter Macalister-Smith**

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# The role and characteristics of an emergency mission

by André Aoun

Governed as it is by the very nature of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, an emergency mission is more than a mere effort to restore essential services. Although it is undoubtedly best characterized by the relief activities set in motion during the acute phase, its full scope cannot be measured without taking into account the preparatory and subsequent rehabilitation and development phases.

Such a mission thus consists invariably of three stages: preliminary, *in situ* and follow-up.

Likewise, a mission can never be an isolated undertaking. It is possible and viable only insofar as it is part of an ongoing and multifaceted national and international effort carried out through the voluntary commitment of qualified professionals.

## The content of an emergency mission

An emergency mission presents various characteristics, in particular its unexpected nature and the diversity of the crisis situations giving rise to it and the needs to be met.

Setting up a relief operation must be considered as a routine task if an effective response is to be given to requests for assistance. For this, several prerequisites must be met.

First of all, a wide range of qualified professionals must be available in sufficient numbers to permit rapide mobilization of the specialists required by any given situation.

In addition to their expertise in their own fields, these professionals must be specifically trained for carrying out missions abroad in unfavourable circumstances and under the Red Cross or Red Crescent banner.

Adequate human resources and versatile know-how coupled with regular training to ensure speed of reaction and intervention constitute the backbone of an emergency operation.

A thorough knowledge of the environment is also essential. The National Red Cross or Red Crescent Society concerned must be able to provide its delegates with comprehensive information on the context in which they will be called upon to work.

Finally, the immediate availability of appropriate material resources is an essential factor for setting up certain emergency missions. These resources include not only the equipment needed by the operational staff but also communication facilities and supplies, which should be kept in stock or be obtainable at very short notice.

The experience of the French Red Cross has shown that the efficiency of emergency missions, whether carried out in situations of armed conflict or following natural disasters, and whether requiring a handful of volunteers or entire operational units, depends largely on certain well-defined rules.

Efficient logistics, providing the operational staff with a degree of autonomy and adequate means of intervention, including communication facilities, constitute the cornerstone of a successful mission.

It is equally important, however, that the operational staff be capable of adapting to specific local conditions, which are always complex and often vary in the course of the mission.

It is likewise important that each member of the team have a clear idea of his own role and those of his associates. Hence the advantage of codifying intervention procedures, while nonetheless preserving the flexibility needed to adapt to the demands of each individual case.

Quite apart from its conditions of implementation, an emergency mission is valid only insofar as it provides specific assistance in a situation beyond the capabilities of local teams.

This assistance may consist in introducing a given rescue or relief technique or in providing a special service such as tracing. Obviously this does not exclude the possibility in some cases of merely strengthening or relieving exhausted local teams.

The effects of an exceptional situation requiring emergency

action are rarely limited and are not easily remedied. The assistance provided must therefore be followed by rehabilitation measures.

Moreover, in cases where special expertise has been introduced, it is logical to ensure, as far as possible, that this is passed on to local teams through more long-term support and development activities.

Of course, each mission requires its own logistics and teams and sound organization. Beyond this, its success will be largely determined by the track record of the National Society concerned, as reflected in the knowledge and experience of those in charge of the mission.

Its success also depends on the team of volunteers responsible for its implementation. More generally, apart from the attributes of individual team members, another critical factor is the quality of the whole pool of volunteers available for international missions, particularly their frame of mind, their motivation and training.

A mission is thus characterized less by its content than by its scale within the structure of the National Society conducting it and by what the volunteers involved make of it.

## **The concept of “voluntary service” in emergency missions**

A keen sense of humanitarian action, goodwill, true availability and solid professional qualifications are attributes characteristic of people who volunteer for emergency missions. However, specific training is required if these qualities are to be used effectively in exceptional circumstances.\*

At the same time, the specific nature of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement plays a decisive role in recruitment. Volunteers are not always fully aware, however, of the implications of the Red Cross principles and the institution's rules governing field operations. One of the major training objectives is therefore to inculcate in volunteers the strict discipline needed for observance of the Red Cross principles and rules of conduct.

Training thus conceived and structured cannot be limited to one or two sessions. It must be continuous, through periodic refresher courses, ready availability of documentation and the constant briefing of volunteers.

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\* See *Training volunteer workers for international missions of the French Red Cross*, p. 535.

This training, which is indispensable for the effective implementation of emergency operations, should be completed by the participation of the volunteers in the National Society's routine activities. This has the twofold advantage of strengthening their position as members of the Red Cross and of providing an opportunity for other members of the Society to share the experience of volunteers who have carried out missions abroad.

Various difficulties await the volunteers out in the field. It would be impossible to list exhaustively all the problems encountered by the staff of successive missions; they range from distance from home to working conditions and life within a delegation.

However, at the conclusion of the mission, these difficulties are usually forgotten in the enthusiasm generated by the sense of accomplishment. Returning volunteers, while mentioning the problems involved, tend to give more emphasis to the achievements of the mission.

One of the major constraints affecting emergency operations remains the availability of mission staff. Mobilization at very short notice of professionals with permanent posts invariably poses a problem.

Setting up a structure for the organization of emergency missions involves constant preparation, a ceaseless effort to update knowledge and the availability of considerable resources.

Whatever the state of readiness and the experience gleaned from many earlier missions, however, each new mission must be approached as a unique undertaking. This expertise and experience will obviously come into play, but the organization of the new mission will be determined largely by the specific context in which it will take place.

**André Aoun**

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# INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

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## **The International Committee of the Red Cross and Health**

*The ICRC Medical Division, established in November 1977, works for the war wounded, for prisoners, for the civilian population and for the war disabled. Its essential purpose is to keep the victims alive, alleviate their suffering and prevent their sicknesses or wounds from ruining the rest of their lives.*

*In his summary of ICRC activities during his term of office, (1976-1987) President Alexandre Hay said last May, "The medical sector, completely embryonic when I arrived, has developed considerably and has now achieved a highly praiseworthy quality and dimension. The ICRC and the victims of conflicts owe a great deal to the spirit of initiative, devotion and competence of its doctors".*

*The Review is particularly pleased to publish the following article by Dr. Rémi Russbach, Chief Medical Officer of the ICRC, who traces the evolution of the Medical Division in the past ten years, emphasizing not only the progress achieved in the execution of its programmes but dealing as well with the problems which the ICRC has had to face in this domain.*

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### INTRODUCTION

In every period of history, war has decimated populations, not only by the mortal wounds inflicted on soldiers but also through famine and disease, caused by destruction of the material resources indispensable for human survival.

In many situations, state institutions have been able to alleviate the most elementary needs, thus limiting the worst effects of con-

flicts on health. In other cases, such as Solferino, the disproportion between the enormity of the disaster and the deficiency of means to deal with it resulted in a veritable hecatomb.

It was circumstances such as these that prompted Henry Dunant's idea of creating groups of volunteers to reinforce official services overwhelmed by the events. This first spontaneous response, born of intense compassion, was followed by the compelling idea which is the very essence of the Geneva Conventions: that the war wounded and those who care for them must be respected without discrimination by the belligerents.

Ever since the foundation of the Red Cross in 1863, and until wars of liberation, armed conflicts took place between countries whose infrastructures were sufficiently developed to resolve most of the resultant health problems, with the help of volunteers.

Under those circumstances, the need for a country to receive aid in the form of medical teams from other countries did not have the same urgency as it does in many present-day conflicts, in which the lack of a medical infrastructure renders outside help, with material and personnel, indispensable.

Until the 1960s, the ICRC therefore concentrated less on material assistance than on the elaboration and practical implementation of the Geneva Conventions in its efforts to alleviate the suffering of war victims, for the primary concern at that time was to persuade governments to respect the various categories of war victims rather than to meet their material needs.

The situation today is quite different. International humanitarian law has been considerably strengthened and offers adequate protection for war victims. The main problem now lies in ensuring that governments adhere to these principles and duly comply with the Conventions and Additional Protocols. To this effect the ICRC must do all it can to promote knowledge of, and respect for, the principles of IHL.

At the same time, if victims are to be protected, it is necessary to keep them alive and ensure as far as possible the material conditions which make life possible.

Since present-day conflicts take place largely in countries with chronically deficient and vulnerable infrastructures, they often entail human tragedies resulting from the destruction of resources essential to survival. In many conflicts, the living conditions of the civilian population are totally incompatible with health. In any such highly pathogenic environment, there is no escape from disease, suffering and death.

To counter such situations, when disease becomes more lethal than the actual weapons, the ICRC in 1977 decided to set up its Medical Division to be able to protect the victims more fully. The Relief Division was also reinforced, with a strong logistic structure enabling it to supply both relief and the basic facilities needed by the victims.

While much progress has been made by the Medical Division in the past 10 years in tackling the health problems of the victims of armed conflicts, much remains to be done in putting programmes into effect and obtaining access to the victims.

## MEDICAL PROGRAMMES

ICRC medical programmes are concerned with four categories of victims:

- (a) The war wounded;
- (b) Prisoners;
- (c) Civilians;
- (d) The war disabled.

All these programmes are destined first and foremost to keep the victims alive, lessen their suffering and prevent the after-effects of their diseases or injuries from ruining their future lives.

To do so, we have limited means, which must be used to best advantage.

Our work takes place in emergency situations in which the need for medical care always surpasses our possibilities. We are often confronted by the painful need for *triage*, i.e. sorting and making a choice of priorities among those who need care. Our experience has enabled us to define several principles, which may be summed up as follows:

- As far as possible, local personnel and material resources should be used to ensure continuity and avoid excessive dependence on outside help. Co-operation with the National Red Cross or Red Crescent Society, which is natural and customary, is the best way of achieving this objective.
- We must avoid giving special advantages to the victims for whom we are responsible, as compared to the surrounding population, to prevent jealousies and tensions which might give rise to violence.
- We must avoid creating an attitude of dependence in the victims, which might render them incapable of subsequently

assuming their own responsibilities and thus jeopardize their future.

- The frequently chronic character of some conflicts calls for interventions which are on the borderline between emergency aid and development. Care must be taken not to set up development programmes before the necessary conditions of stability, disrupted by the conflict, have been restored.
- During the acute period, plans should already be made to follow up the initial programme, which could be taken over by the government or other organizations as a development project.
- The ICRC should try to harmonize the roles of the various organizations involved, so as to avoid duplication, while retaining under its own responsibility specific tasks which it alone can perform, by virtue of its special role as a neutral and independent institution.

## **1. Medical care for the wounded**

The main problem for war casualties is that they seldom receive adequate first-aid treatment and that their access to a hospital is long-delayed and hazardous. Particularly in guerrilla wars, the nearest treatment centre may be several days away on foot, and the wounded may not be able to get there at all because of the dangers involved. The ICRC is therefore doing all it can to improve the training of both combatants and civilians in first aid and transport of the wounded. At the same time, it is endeavouring to spread knowledge of the fundamental principles of the Red Cross among combatants, teaching them that respect must be shown for the enemy wounded.

The ICRC is often asked to improve the operational capacity of existing surgical centres and may, after evaluation, supply them with surgical and medical material.

In acute crises with which local personnel cannot cope, the ICRC can send in emergency teams to help them.

Sometimes the only way to treat the wounded properly and safely is to set up hospitals for them near the border of the country where the conflict is taking place. About 10,000 war casualties are thus cared for each year, under ICRC auspices, by teams often consisting of volunteers from National Societies.



If local means are insufficient or the assistance of a neutral and independent body is necessary, the ICRC organizes a system for evacuation and care to meet the needs.

War surgery can be performed with simple material, but it requires a relatively secure location and supplies of water and energy. Good care does, however, require a highly qualified surgical team with special training in war surgery, which presents very different problems from those encountered in peacetime.

For example, it is imperative that wounds caused by high velocity projectiles be treated by special techniques to give the victims the care they need.

The *triage* of the wounded when great numbers of them arrive simultaneously is also a very important and specific problem, for which surgeons must be carefully prepared.

Since few surgeons have polyvalent training and experience in war surgery, which is a very specialized field, the ICRC has to give already highly skilled surgeons additional theoretical training to prepare them for the new problems they will encounter. Instructional material on this subject is regularly kept up to date by the Medical Division and exchanges of information take place constantly with surgeons who have special experience in this field.

Much remains to be done to adapt new techniques to war surgery, while maintaining a simple and realistic approach. The experience of the ICRC in this field should be more widely publicized for the benefit of those who may eventually have to face the problems involved. As early as 1863, Dr. Appia, one of the founders of the ICRC, said, "Whereas the military have to keep quiet about how war is waged, doctors must make sure everyone knows how to treat its effects."

## **2. Medical care for prisoners**

The role of doctors in visits to prison camps and prisons is of great importance, because the greatest concern of prisoners is usually their health.

Everything possible must be done to safeguard the physical and mental integrity of prisoners so that when their detention comes to an end, after-effects of their confinement will not make it impossible for them to return to normal life.

Even if a prisoner is not seriously maltreated or tortured, the prison environment itself is an attack on the body and mind of

prisoners and inevitably leads to more or less serious health problems, depending on the circumstances.

ICRC doctors do not have the power to tackle the cause of such afflictions, except in the rare cases when they can obtain the authorities' consent to repatriations or releases for medical reasons. They can, however, do much to ensure that the conditions of detention are not excessively prejudicial to the health and lives of the prisoners.

The quality and quantity of water and food, the quarters and the conditions of everyday life must be closely examined and the authorities can subsequently be requested to make any necessary improvements.

The quality of medical care provided, and the ready accessibility of this care to the detainees, must also be investigated, followed by appropriate requests to the authorities by the visiting doctors. Interviews without witness with the detainees, which are the cornerstone of all ICRC visits, have more than an informative value, because the human and even therapeutic aspect they give to the visits can enable prisoners to cope more effectively with the abnormal conditions in which they are compelled to live.

When there are allegations of torture or mistreatment, the doctors will look for physical or mental evidence of such abuses and will inform the responsible authorities accordingly. Every possible step will be taken to eliminate violence and prevent further instances of torture.

It is obvious that the medical aspect of the ICRC's work in places of detention is one of the major concerns of the Medical Division, which must pool the information and prepare its doctors and nurses for the delicate task of visiting them.

There, too, to do its job properly and efficiently, the ICRC must meet high standards of professionalism, record all experience gained in the field and pass it on to new staff members.

The complexity of the health problems encountered in the hundreds of places of detention visited by the ICRC—involving surgery, dermatology, epidemiology, infectious diseases, nutrition and psychiatry—calls for highly qualified personnel whom the ICRC must be able to recruit, train and keep.

### **3. Medical care for displaced persons**

It is in its approach to emergency action for displaced persons that the methods of the ICRC have evolved most in recent years.

Curative medicine, for example, consisting of direct treatment, is no longer practised without being accompanied by other measures which are its indispensable complement.

This comprehensive approach to health, which takes into account the causes of disease and integrates the skills of specialists in various fields, is the only way to improve the situation.<sup>1,2</sup>

When a large group of people are uprooted, forced to flee from their natural and traditional environment to escape the horrors of war, carrying with them only a few personal possessions, the result is often a mass of human beings in an area which lacks the bare essentials for health or even for survival. Typically, water pollution makes the situation even more desperate, producing epidemics of diarrhoea and other infectious diseases.

Malnutrition and the lack of protection against cold and damp reduce resistance to infectious diseases and further aggravate their condition. The first to suffer are those most vulnerable: children old people and pregnant women. Others succumb as the situation continues.

Anxiety, generated by the terror from which they fled and their continuing insecurity, gives rise to psychological disturbances and eventually to many psychosomatic disorders.

If medical consultations are organized in such circumstances, the influx of patients is soon overwhelming and nothing can be done to solve the problem.

Arrangements must simultaneously be made for adequate supplies of water, food and means of protection against the elements. This presents tremendous problems in a conflict situation, in which a relief work is delayed or impeded by any number of political, military and logistic constraints.

Under such precarious conditions, relief work has to be very carefully planned to be of the utmost possible benefit for the victims' health. Priorities have to be decided on the basis of professional evaluations, in order to concentrate assistance efforts on the most vital needs and thus obtain optimum results.

Donors should be informed of the specific needs of the population, to avoid shipments of non-priority supplies which may divert the relief operation from its essential purpose. With this in

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<sup>1</sup> Rémi Russbach, "Disaster Co-ordinating Doctor, a multidisciplinary training" — *Newsletter, International Society on Disaster Medicine*, No. 30, August 1986, pp. 1-4.

<sup>2</sup> Pierre Perrin, "Medical Assistance in an Emergency Situation", ICRC, 1984.

mind, basic documentation has been widely distributed<sup>3</sup> and general directives have been given in resolutions by recent International Conferences of the Red Cross.<sup>4, 5, 6</sup>

In view of the difficulty of finding medical personnel with all the expertise and know-how required for the complex task of evaluation and co-ordination of emergency medical programmes of this kind, the ICRC, in conjunction with the WHO and the Geneva University's Faculty of Medicine, has organized an annual four-week training course under the name "HELP" (Health Emergency in Large Population). These courses are open to the medical personnel of the ICRC and of other organizations active in assisting displaced populations.

These courses enable experienced doctors and other health personnel to broaden their knowledge in such varied fields as planning, epidemiology, nutrition, sanitation, infectious diseases, emergency, training of local personnel, co-ordination of health programmes and the protection of war victims. Fifty persons have already followed this programme, which can train 25 candidates each year.

#### **4. Medical care for the war disabled**

When we have had to amputate the leg of a wounded person or have treated the injuries of a paraplegic, we cannot simply walk away and leave the victim to become a burden on his family or community.

We therefore have to think of a lasting solution which will give him a chance to become reintegrated into his social and family environment, in the best possible conditions.

In such cases, contrary to its usual practice, the ICRC has to set up programmes which go beyond its self-imposed emergency criterion, since the situation calls for long-term treatment involving a development project.

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<sup>3</sup> *ICRC Handbook for Donors — Technical guidelines for donation in kind to ICRC relief operations*, ICRC, 1983.

<sup>4</sup> 24th International Conference of the Red Cross, Manila, 1981: *Resolution XXXVI — Role of medical personnel in the preparation and execution of Red Cross emergency medical action*.

<sup>5</sup> 25th International Conference of the Red Cross, Geneva, 1986: *Resolution XVIII — Nutrition and food donation policy in Red Cross and Red Crescent emergency operations*.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, *Resolution XIX — Medical supplies in Red Cross and Red Crescent emergency operations*.

In the past ten years, in co-operation with qualified prosthetic technicians and physiotherapists, the Medical Division has tried to develop the best possible long-term solutions for the rehabilitation of amputees and paraplegics, based on the principles of self-sufficiency and appropriate technology.

In every one of the twelve countries in which the ICRC has developed orthopaedic projects in the form of small workshops, we began by investigating the local resources, in personnel and material, and have worked out technical solutions adapted to local conditions. In this way, we have assured the long-term operation of the project, making it independent of foreign imports and foreign currency.

More than 10,000 amputees have been enabled to walk again and hundreds of paraplegics have been able to go back to their homes.

Many discussions have taken place between the Medical Division and various governments and institutions, aimed at setting up such projects in as many countries as possible.

A Special Fund for the Disabled has been established at the ICRC to finance new projects.<sup>7</sup>

In view of the magnitude of this problem throughout the world, we hope it will be possible to develop many new centres.

## CONCLUSIONS

In the past ten years, the ICRC has had to adapt to new types of problems affecting the victims of armed conflicts and substantially develop its operational capacity in terms of medical assistance and relief.

There is every reason to believe that this effort will have to continue, as much remains to be done to meet the victims' basic needs.

To obtain the best results, the professionalism of Red Cross volunteers must be further developed and their training improved, both by the ICRC and by the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

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<sup>7</sup> 24th International Conference of the Red Cross, Manila, 1981: *Resolution XXVII* — ICRC Special Fund for the Disabled.

The increasingly technical and professional approach, however, must not be achieved at the expense of the spirit of humanity which is at the heart of every Red Cross action.

A permanent dialogue with National Societies taking part in ICRC medical activities is essential to avoid losing sight of the ultimate purpose of all such work and to concentrate all efforts on the single objective of ensuring the survival and relieving the suffering of the victims of war.

The dissemination of training material for volunteers and exchanges of information with all parties interested in the problems of concern to us should also be developed, for it is essential to have mutual understanding and complementarity of action between voluntary agencies working in the same field.

**Dr. Rémi Russbach**

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## Official visits to the ICRC

On 31 August 1987 the Vice-President of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, **Justice A.K.M. Nurul Islam**, visited ICRC headquarters, where he was received by the institution's President, Mr. Cornelio Sommaruga.

In his welcoming speech, the ICRC President paid tribute to Mr. Nurul Islam, who is also Justice Minister of Bangladesh and a former Chairman of the National Red Cross Society, as a special partner in the dissemination of international humanitarian law.

In his reply, Vice-President Nurul Islam spoke of his concern over the situation in his country following the recent serious floods. He also underlined the role played by the ICRC since Bangladesh gained independence and thanked the institution for its activities on behalf of victims.

During the courtesy visit, Justice A.K.M. Nurul Islam was accompanied by the Permanent Representative of Bangladesh to the United Nations at Geneva, Mr. Ataul Karim. Before concluding their visit they had a private meeting with Mr. Sommaruga.

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**H.E. Mr. Pedro Rodrigues Pires**, Prime Minister of the Republic of Cape Verde, and his wife, visited the headquarters of the International Committee of the Red Cross on 4 September 1987. They were welcomed by Mr. Cornelio Sommaruga.

H.E. Mr. Pedro Rodrigues Pires, accompanied by members of his government, discussed with Mr. Sommaruga various humanitarian matters of particular concern to the African continent. They

also talked about ICRC activities in that part of the world, as well as the activities of the young Red Cross Society of Cape Verde.

Recognized by the ICRC in 1985, the National Society is one of the most active in Africa. It has 13 local committees which cover all the islands making up the territory. As well as organizing the usual activities of a National Red Cross Society—health programmes, first-aid work, youth movement—the Red Cross Society of Cape Verde is also involved in literacy programmes, and works closely with the ICRC in disseminating international humanitarian law.

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The President of the International Committee of the Red Cross received the Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization, **Mr. Yasser Arafat**, at ICRC headquarters in Geneva on 7 September 1987.

The meeting focused on the humanitarian activities carried out by the ICRC in the Middle East, especially in the territories occupied by Israel since 1967, in Lebanon, and in connection with the Iran-Iraq conflict.

The meeting took place as part of efforts by the ICRC to bring protection and assistance to all victims of the conflicts in that part of the world.

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*EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES**July-August 1987***Africa****Mozambique**

Following the appalling massacres in Homoine and Manjacaze on 18 July and 10 August, the ICRC appealed to all the combatants in the conflict in Mozambique to put a stop to such atrocities. In a press release of 14 August, the ICRC reminded those involved in the conflict that one of the fundamental principles of international humanitarian law is that civilians—especially women, children and old people—must be respected, together with hospitals and hospital staff; in short, all those not taking part in the fighting must be spared.

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In conjunction with the National Society, the ICRC delegation in Mozambique carried on its work to help civilians displaced by the fighting. In recent years, the ICRC's sub-delegation in Quelimane (Zambezia province) has functioned as the centre of operations. It was decided to move that centre to Beira (Sofala province) at the end of August, because of the better logistic facilities in Beira (port, railway from Zimbabwe, fuel supplies, etc.), and also because of the growth of ICRC operations in the southern provinces of Inhambane and Manica.

## Angola

The ICRC's activities in the field had to be partially suspended in July for lack of sufficient security guarantees. In August, the delegates were able to resume their customary visits on the Planalto where they began to prepare the distribution of maize, sorghum and soya seed to the civilian population due to take place in September and October.

## Ethiopia

Mr. Rudolf Jäckli, a member of the Executive Board, led a delegation from the ICRC in late July to Addis Ababa where the OAU Summit was being held. The mission also provided an opportunity for the ICRC representatives to meet officials from the Ethiopian Red Cross Society and discuss the resumption of ICRC activities in that country and arrangements for co-operation between the ICRC and the National Society.

The ICRC's locust control programme was launched in August, first in the Asmara region and then in Tigre province. Beginning on 21 August, the ICRC's Piper Aztec aircraft was based in Mekele and a series of successful locust-spraying operations was carried out in Tigre.

Distribution of food by the ICRC was also resumed in June in Eritrea and Tigre. Food distributions were later organized in Gondar. During the month of August, a total of 927 tonnes of food were received by some 38,000 people in Eritrea, 29,000 in Gondar and 16,000 in Tigre.

Finally, a survey of the affected provinces was undertaken in July with a view to setting up an early warning system so that action can be taken quickly in areas where the population is suffering particular hardship.

## Chad

In July and August, the ICRC attempted to carry out its Convention-based protection and assistance activities in connection with the conflict by repeating its approaches to the Chad and Libyan authorities, both in Geneva and through its delegation in N'Djamena. On 2 July, the Director of Operations and the Deputy Delegate General for Africa were received by President Hissène

Habré for discussions on the question of visits by ICRC delegates to the prisoners of war captured by the Chad national armed forces. At the end of August, the ICRC had still not received a reply to its written and oral representations to the two parties to the conflict and further steps were being considered.

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During the Libyan bombing raids on the Tibesti in August, an ICRC delegate and nurse were in Faya-Largeau giving first-aid courses. They returned to N'Djamena on 17 September when their course was finished.

## Latin America

### Haiti

In view of the general situation in the country, the ICRC sent two delegates (including a doctor) to Haiti in early August to determine whether the ICRC would be required to take action. The delegates had numerous discussions with the Haitian Red Cross and travelled to various parts of the country to visit hospitals and outposts of the National Society. Following this mission, a joint programme of action was established with the League to strengthen the structure of the National Society (restructuring six branches, improving ambulance and first-aid services in the capital, disseminating knowledge of Red Cross work and international humanitarian law, etc.).

In addition, the ICRC regional delegate based in Costa Rica had discussions in July with the Haitian authorities on various subjects of common interest.

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The ICRC visited detainees in *Chile* and *El Salvador* (in both countries, visits to places of detention under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice and the security corps), in *Nicaragua* (visits to two prisons in the capital) and in *Peru* (visits to prisons under the

jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice in Lima and in the provinces).

The ICRC continued its assistance programmes for the civilian populations affected by the conflicts in *Nicaragua* and *El Salvador*. In the latter the second phase of its "Agricultural Programme" was successfully completed: during the period under review, bean, sorghum and sesame seeds and insecticides were distributed to more than 12,000 families.

In addition to its routine activities in Nicaragua and El Salvador, the ICRC gave a course for officers of the armed forces of *Honduras* and the *Dominican Republic*, as part of its programme to spread knowledge of international humanitarian law and the activities of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

Relations were maintained through the regional delegations with the authorities and/or the National Societies of the following countries: Brazil, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

## Asia

### Kampuchean conflict

As the years go by, hopes that the refugees may be able to return to their homes have dwindled and the situation has become increasingly difficult in the camps housing displaced persons on the Khmer-Thai border, especially at Site 2 (160,000 inhabitants). The insecurity there, due both to the conflict and to internal violence, constantly makes itself felt and is a source of great concern to the ICRC.

While waiting for a solution to be found that would enable people to return with dignity to their homes, the ICRC is continuing its efforts to persuade the authorities concerned to provide better protection for the refugees, for example by evacuating the camps in unsafe zones, ensuring that the civilian status of the sites is respected and dividing the Site 2 camp into smaller, more manageable units. In August a delegate was sent from Geneva to study what specific measures could be taken to bring this about.

The three ICRC surgical teams, each made up of a surgeon, an anaesthetist and a nurse, continued their work at the Khao I Dang hospital. In July and August 273 new patients were admitted, 100 of whom had been wounded in the fighting.

Turning to tracing activities, finally, the ICRC remained the only official channel of communication between the camps on the border. During the period under review, 5,037 letters and family messages were exchanged between the inhabitants of the various camps, both Khmer and Vietnamese. The delegates also continued dealing with tracing requests (1,552 requests, of which 667 were resolved) and transferring Khmer and Vietnamese refugees either to the border or to a transit point in preparation for their resettlement abroad.

### **People's Republic of Kampuchea**

The authorities in Phnom Penh agreed to a request for another family reunification, the first carried out under ICRC auspices in 1987. A young girl, accompanied by an ICRC doctor, left Kampuchea to join her family in Paris.

### **Democratic People's Republic of Korea**

At the invitation of the National Society, the head of the ICRC's regional delegation in Hong Kong carried out a mission to the Democratic People's Republic of Korea in August. His visit helped the ICRC to maintain its contacts with the National Society and the authorities and to discuss projects of mutual interest.

### **Indonesia/East Timor**

In a further series of visits to detainees (GPK prisoners) from East Timor held in connection with the events there, the ICRC obtained access to 172 detainees in Dili and Jakarta in August.

### **Conflict in Afghanistan**

*Afghanistan:* During a visit to ICRC headquarters Mrs. Soraya, President and Secretary-General of the Afghan Red Crescent, reviewed the activities of the ICRC in her country with President Sommaruga.

In the area of medical care, an agreement between the ICRC and the Afghan Red Crescent on a programme of support for Red Crescent dispensaries was signed on 19 August. The discussions also covered ICRC orthopaedic activities (a third ICRC technician arrived in Kabul in August), the possibility of setting up an ICRC surgical hospital in the capital, disseminating knowledge of international humanitarian law in the National Society and in the Afghan armed forces, and protection for detainees.

*Pakistan:* meanwhile, the number of war wounded admitted to the ICRC surgical hospital in Quetta in July (120) and August (133) has considerably increased. Five hospital tents provided by the Norwegian Red Cross were set up nearby to increase the number of beds. In addition, a new operating room and intensive care unit were inaugurated at the Quetta hospital on 25 August. The two ICRC surgical teams in Quetta perform an average of 300 operations per month. In Peshawar, 264 patients were admitted to the ICRC hospital in July and August and 681 operations were performed.

## Middle East

### Iran/Iraq Conflict

After allegations had been made in July of repeated use of chemical weapons, strictly prohibited by international law, the ICRC once again approached the two belligerents to remind them, in accordance with its principles and customary procedure, that it is always ready to carry out its traditional assistance activities for the victims of armed conflict, whether in cases where prohibited weapons have been used or where attacks have been made on civilians or civilian property.

Delegates meanwhile continued their visits to prisoner-of-war camps in Iran and Iraq. In *Iran*, they visited the ninth and tenth camp in the first series of visits which had begun in December 1986.

In *Iraq*, two teams of ICRC delegates continued their visits to Iranian prisoners of war. The year's fourth series of visits took place in June and July and the fifth series began in August.

From 20 to 31 August, the ICRC delegate general for the Middle East carried out a mission to Tehran. There he met Iranian

authorities to discuss the ICRC's work on behalf of victims of the conflict and many humanitarian questions of mutual interest.

He also met leading officials of the National Society with whom he discussed co-operation between their Society and the ICRC.

### **Lebanon**

During the months of July and August, the fall in the value of the national currency made the economic situation in Lebanon even more critical.

The ICRC continued its usual activities, in particular relief work. In accordance with its mandate, the ICRC assists civilians who are the direct victims of the fighting, especially those living in the villages along the demarcation line between the "security belt" in the south and the rest of the country.

In conjunction with the Lebanese Red Cross, the ICRC used mobile clinics to provide medical consultations for civilians in nine villages in the region without any medical infrastructure. During the period under review, the mobile clinics were on three occasions prevented by lack of security from making scheduled stops in villages. Relief supplies (food, blankets, cooking utensils) were also distributed throughout the country to those most severely affected by the conflict and the economic situation: 7,000 persons in July and over 8,000 in August.

The ICRC continued to have regular access to the Palestinian camps, such as Rachidieh, in the south of the country. It was also authorized to go to the Chatila and Borj-el-Brajneh camps in Beirut to provide medical and tracing assistance. With the agreement of all the parties, the wounded were evacuated from the camps for treatment.

ICRC delegates continued their visits to persons detained by various parties to the conflict; 80 persons were seen in July and 30 in August. In spite of repeated requests, the ICRC did not gain access to all the persons detained. In particular, it was not authorized to visit detainees in the "security belt", such as those in the Khiam prison. The ICRC did, however, have access to persons captured in Lebanon and detained, in violation of the Fourth Convention, in Israel. There were 44 such detainees at the end of August.

### **Israel and the Occupied Territories**

In August ICRC delegates, including a doctor, began the complete annual series of prison visits which should take them to 17

places of detention. The series was delayed because the procedure for the doctor's visit once again became an issue between the Israeli authorities and the ICRC. At the same time, delegates pursued their usual activities, most of them based on the Fourth Geneva Convention relating to the protection of civilians.

### **Yemen Arab Republic**

A series of visits to places of detention in the Yemen Arab Republic which had begun at the end of June was completed on 24 July. The delegates, including an ICRC doctor, visited some 4,000 detainees—42 of them security detainees—in eight detention centres in the capital and in provincial towns.

### **People's Democratic Republic of Yemen**

The regional delegate for North Africa and the Arabian Peninsula went to Aden in early July to meet the Minister of the Interior, the Deputy Prime Minister, the Vice-Chairman of the State Security Committee and the Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs. He handed over to them the report on the visit made in late April to 89 security detainees arrested in connection with the events of January 1986.

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## IN THE RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT WORLD

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*(Photo B. Plantier)*

### **Death of Mr. Enrique de la Mata**

Mr. Enrique de la Mata, President of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, died suddenly on 6 September 1987 in Rome at the age of 53.

Mr. de la Mata was elected League President in Manila in 1981 and re-elected for a second four-year term in Geneva in October 1985. He had previously been appointed League Vice-President and was twice President of the Spanish Red Cross.

A lawyer by profession, Mr. de la Mata was a member of the Spanish Parliament for 15 years and held several official posts in the area of health, social affairs and labour relations. He was married and the father of seven children.

Through his energy and drive, Mr. de la Mata strengthened the League's public image, and sought to adapt the Movement, pressing for a revision of International Red Cross Statutes and the agreement between the ICRC and the League. His personal contact with the leaders of National Societies during some 200 field trips was particularly appreciated and he had contacts with many governments and with United Nations leaders.

Mr. de la Mata tried to enlarge the role played by Third World members in the Federation and sixteen new National Societies were admitted while he was President. He also fostered the Movement's concern for peace, and strongly supported the work of the Commission on the Red Cross and Peace, and the Second World Red Cross and Red Crescent Conference on Peace held in 1984.

Mr. Hans Hoegh, Secretary General of the League, said that "Enrique de la Mata was one of the most active Presidents in the history of our international federation. He was a tireless champion of the Movement's work throughout the world and was particularly dedicated to the cause of peace. He toiled relentlessly to expand and strengthen the Movement's role... The entire Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement will keenly feel his loss".

In a message to the League's nine Vice-Presidents and its Secretary General, Mr. Cornelio Sommaruga, President of the ICRC, expressed his condolence with Mr. de la Mata's family and sent his institution's deep sympathy to all the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies which are members of the federation. He praised Mr. de la Mata as a man "wholly committed to the Movement, who tirelessly travelled the world to visit the National Societies and was unstinting in his efforts on their behalf".

"Our relationship was based on a spirit of understanding and respect for each other's opinions", said Mr. Alexandre Hay, recalling how he and Mr. de la Mata had worked together from 1981 to 1987. The former ICRC President paid tribute to Mr. de la Mata's work on behalf of the Movement saying that "it is no exaggeration to say that he wore himself out toiling at the great and noble task. I will remember him as a very committed man, constantly striving to promote the National Societies, all the National Societies, in order to create vigorous and effective organizations in the service of humanity".

Mr. de la Mata's funeral took place in Madrid on 9 September in the presence of his widow and his seven children. It was attended by many leading figures from his homeland, the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and the international community. The ICRC was represented by President Sommaruga and former President Hay.

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## ACTIVITIES OF NATIONAL RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT SOCIETIES

### **Training volunteer workers for international missions of the French Red Cross**

*To illustrate the role played by National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies in humanitarian aid activities, the Review is happy to offer its readers an article on the training of volunteer workers for international missions carried out by the French Red Cross. The text is part of a document entitled "Volontaire des missions internationales" (the volunteer in international missions) prepared by Miss Mireille Desrez, French Red Cross director of technical personnel and missions in the national interest, and Mrs. Hélène Delpon de Vaux of the same department. The article deals with the recruitment, training, preparation and management of French Red Cross volunteers who take part in international missions.*

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THREE TYPES OF SEMINARS HAVE BEEN DEVELOPED TO IMPROVE THE STATE OF READINESS OF VOLUNTEERS:

#### **Compulsory basic seminar**

By decision of the Administrative Board of the French Red Cross, this preparatory seminar must be attended by *all volunteers*. It is a five- to six-day residential course during which the participants live together, get to know and accept one another, share knowledge and prepare to function as a team.

*The aim of the basic seminar* is to prepare voluntary or permanent Red Cross staff gradually to assume functions in the field, at all levels and degrees of responsibility.

*Its objectives are to enable participants to:*

- learn how to adapt knowledge and professional techniques to new situations (case studies, practical exercises, epidemiological surveys, etc.);
- learn emergency techniques (application in simulated disaster situations);
- learn about Red Cross missions and the institution's components at the national and international levels;
- become familiar with Red Cross policy and the specific nature of the institution: international humanitarian law, fundamental principles, doctrine (lectures, case studies, sharing of experience);
- explore personal motivations for commitment to the Red Cross (professional requirements, concrete implications, etc.);
- study the cultural background against which missions take place in order to foster respect for different peoples, traditions and customs (introduction to anthropology, ethnology and traditional medicine and practices).

### **Seminars on special subjects**

These seminars are a sequel to the basic training received by all those wishing to assume a function within the Red Cross, and are designed to enable participants to study a particular aspect of a given area in greater detail. They constitute the first step in acquiring a specialization or a particular technique within the Red Cross, such as paediatrics, emergency and disaster relief, public health and primary health care, topography, international radio links, etc. They provide an opportunity for participants to adapt their knowledge and skills to specific needs in the field.

*The objectives of these seminars are to enable participants to:*

- become efficient technicians in their chosen fields of activity;
- consider the moral and human implications of the techniques used;
- adapt various techniques and specific activities to Red Cross aims (overall view of the action taken and awareness of its meaning);
- organize emergency drills and manœuvres in simulated conflict or disaster situations in order to prepare individuals and teams for action.

These seminars prove highly revealing of human behaviour in the face of emergencies and decision-making. They separate undesirable or immature candidates from potential leaders.

## Specific seminars

These seminars are designed to prepare Red Cross personnel to function as chiefs of mission or as logistics, administrative or technical delegates and co-ordinators.

Senior Red Cross officials must be capable, in both technical and humanitarian terms, of facing and efficiently handling increasingly complex situations and environments.

*The objectives of the specific seminars are to:*

- learn operational methods appropriate for different types of mission;
- study various subjects and techniques useful to managers and leaders in specific contexts (administration, communications, organizational skills, medical techniques, ethics, human relations);
- pinpoint and define what is involved in the exercise of a managerial or leadership role in Red Cross missions.

## *Selection of future leaders*

After they have participated in several field missions, certain volunteers are proposed as candidates for leadership posts within the ICRC, the League and the French Red Cross. Their qualifications generally correspond to the criteria required for managerial posts, and include knowledge of languages, professional training and experience, previous mission work and participation in social and organizational activities within the Red Cross.

In addition to their complementary professional training, they must be capable of establishing working relationships with the delegates of national, international, public and private agencies. They must also be capable of analytical and deductive reasoning, rapid assessment and implementation, organization, and objectivity towards situations and people; they must have a taste for adventure and be diplomatic and adaptable; they must show leadership, respect for and confidence in others and to be able to delegate authority. They must likewise be levelheaded, receptive, good listeners, modest, self-critical and conscientious, and must fully comprehend their roles, duties and rights.

## *Training schedule*

Each September, the schedule for the next series of training courses is established. It is automatically sent, together with a pre-registration form, to all volunteers.

This method presents two advantages: it enables the volunteers to adapt their work schedules to the courses they wish to attend and it enables the training service to send participants registration forms and draft programmes five to six weeks before the beginning of the course.

Over the years:

- Programme content is improved on the basis of assessments made by participants and instructors.
- New subjects are added, such as broadcasting, orienteering and topography. These are chosen on the basis of mission reports and at the request of many volunteers returning from fieldwork.
- The basic seminar is periodically modified to keep pace with changes in the type of mission undertaken and to meet new needs that arise in the field.

The instructors, leaders and organizers are all unpaid volunteers passing on knowledge and experience they have gained on mission to new volunteers being prepared for departure.

*Self-training methods have been adopted in all the seminars of the French Red Cross.*—The seminars are all multidisciplinary and include all categories of professionals who will meet and interact as members of field teams; namely, surgeons, doctors, nurses, field technicians, radio operators, experts in logistics, administrators. Each trainee receives the same basic instruction and participates in the same practical exercises, but the length of their course varies according to their profession.

Of course many trainees, over 300 a year, participate in these seminars, practical exercises and workshops on a voluntary basis, paying their own travel and living expenses. The investment in time, energy and money is a deliberate choice on their part, which makes some of them feel that they have a sort of “right to departure”. During the practical exercises, interaction and exchanges, some become aware of their own limitations and the distance between their dreams and reality. Many more are strengthened in their resolve to leave on mission. It is not always possible to fulfil their wishes rapidly. Impending missions may not correspond to their qualifications and suitable missions may not come up for several months. This may lead to resentment and disappointment. Volunteers belonging to several humanitarian associations often leave on mission with another one. This is all to the good, since volunteers who have been steeped for several days in Red Cross principles and international humanitarian law and its application are eminently prepared to pass that knowledge on to others. This is clearly demonstrated by the lasting bonds forged with such volunteers.

Invaluable assistance in training activities is provided by the ICRC, the League and the Henry Dunant Institute, while medical, surgical, administrative and logistics specialists from the Army and public and private bodies help enhance the educational quality of the courses.

### **Specialized teams**

In addition to dealing with disasters in France itself, the French Red Cross has always taken a prominent part in providing relief in the event of catastrophes or conflicts elsewhere in the world, particularly during two critical periods: the Biafra war from 1967 to 1970, and the events in Kampuchea in 1979.

As a result, it was obliged to go beyond its small-scale, *ad hoc* approach to relief operations and create a highly diversified and competent corps of professional volunteers, well versed in the Geneva Conventions, the fundamental principles and the rule of discretion.

The French Red Cross is thus in a position to meet requests from the ICRC, the French Government (Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Co-operation and Health, and Ministry of Defence for the Armed Forces Medical Services), as well as organizing its own missions.

Over the past few years, in response to specific demands, the French Red Cross has had to set up special extreme emergency teams to increase its efficiency still further. Highly qualified and competent volunteers with experience in emergency missions are selected and trained for team work in a given context.

*Three types of operational teams* have thus been established. They may operate at the request of the League, the ICRC, other National Societies (bilateral aid) or the Government. The three types of team are:

- **An emergency medical and surgical or health-care team**, which is ready to travel with its own surgical or medical unit;
- **A disaster assessment team**, which prepares and implements relief programmes; and
- **A paediatrics team**. This team may be called upon to perform humanitarian work under the Military Rapid Intervention Units, which depend on the central authority of the Armed Forces Medical Services.

*The teams share the following characteristics:*

- They must be ready to go within six hours of the alert;
- They have both individual medical kits and collective equipment (medical chests), as well as surgical units;

- They are called upon to intervene rapidly, that is, within a maximum limit of 12 hours, and have enough equipment to act independently for two days to treat approximately 100 wounded, or to work for 15 days with medical cases;
  - They comprise, according to their type, different categories of health personnel (surgeons, doctors and specialized health-care workers), logisticians, liaison or information delegates and the appropriate technicians;
  - They may have a nucleus of two to three volunteers and be enlarged as needed;
  - They may be called upon in the first hours of the mission to assess the situation and draw up a programme;
  - They are capable of coping with priority cases and setting up an infrastructure then handing over to other teams or national services or, where necessary, expanding their activities to meet real needs.
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## **Seventy-fifth anniversary of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society**

*The Egyptian Red Crescent Society was founded on 24 October 1912. Although its 75 years of existence have been marked by wars and disasters, the efforts of its volunteers and the humanitarian spirit which constitutes the hallmark of its activities have enabled it to withstand every trial.*

*Through its numerous humanitarian endeavours on behalf of communities both at home and abroad in times of war and peace, the Egyptian Red Crescent has gained experience beneficial to many National Societies and has set an example far beyond its national borders.*

*The International Review of the Red Cross takes pleasure in publishing, on this occasion, an overview of the past and current activities of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society presented by its Secretary-General, Mr. Yahia Hassan Darwish. This issue covers the activities of the National Society in the health and relief fields. Its other activities will be described in the next issue of the Review.*

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The Egyptian Red Crescent Society was recognized by the ICRC on 1 February 1924 and became a member of the League on 30 May 1929. In accordance with its Statutes, its activities include health work, social welfare, relief for victims of armed conflicts and natural disasters, tracing and family reunification, youth, dissemination of humanitarian principles and international humanitarian law, and information.

### **I. Role of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society in health work**

The following activities are included in the health work:

#### **1. Health care and first-aid training**

One of the main activities of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society is the training of male and female health-care and first-aid volunteers. Since the

National Society depends on voluntary services to accomplish its aims, it concentrates on developing the human resources necessary to carry out the tasks entrusted to it, particularly emergency and disaster relief, and hospital medical activities.

## *2. Blood donation*

The idea of setting up an Egyptian blood bank to help save war and disaster victims at home and abroad was born in 1953. The Egyptian Central Blood Bank, created in Cairo in 1973, is unique in the Middle East.

## *3. National health campaigns*

The Egyptian Red Crescent Society organizes national health campaigns to vaccinate children against poliomyelitis, diphtheria, tetanus and measles and protect them from dehydration. It likewise organizes campaigns to promote hygiene and blood donation in schools, universities and public service establishments.

## *4. Creation of health-care establishments*

The Egyptian Red Crescent Society has made considerable efforts to create and run health-care establishments. These include two large hospitals, one in Qena and the other in Tanta, which have treated 87,343 cases; a first-aid post, 92 cases; 11 dispensaries, 54,744 cases; 14 out-patient clinics, 1,115,154 cases; two physiotherapy centres, 1,945 cases; five family-planning centres, 920 cases; two sea-rescue stations, 1,782 cases; a blood bank, 812 cases; a blood-disease treatment centre, 80 cases; and a maternity and child health-care centre, 150 cases.

# **II. Role of the Egyptian Red Crescent Society in national and international relief**

## **A. NATIONAL**

### *1. In wartime*

The Egyptian Red Crescent Society played a prominent role during the 1956, 1967 and 1973 wars. In particular, it:

- called on citizens to participate in voluntary activities on behalf of the nation in the fields of civil defence, health, relief or public services;
- became a rallying point for the training of male and female volunteers in relief and health-care activities;

- encouraged its volunteers and youth members to participate in the activities of all medical units in bringing relief to the wounded and ill and providing them with all the necessary assistance; including financial and other material assistance;
- organized medical teams and provided hospitals and medical units with the necessary supplies;
- hired medical and nursing units to cope with emergency situations;
- created a national information bureau responsible for the exchange, through the ICRC, of messages between citizens and their close relatives in the occupied territories. This bureau also handles requests concerning members of the armed forces, whatever their rank, and the reuniting of families of all nationalities;
- organized nationwide fund-raising campaigns on behalf of the war victims;
- paid regular visits and supplied all the necessary aid to the wounded in hospitals.

## 2. *In cases of disaster*

**Fires:** in 1913, fires broke out in several Egyptian villages, displacing many villagers and depriving them of food and shelter. The National Society sent the victims emergency relief including tents, 400 measures of maize and a medical team.

In 1925, the village of Al-Rahmania, in the province of Behera, was devastated by a serious fire. The victims received emergency relief from the Red Crescent.

In 1932, the National Society likewise sent relief to victims after a fire broke out in the village of Mit in the province of Daqahliya.

In 1934, a fire spread through the village of Mahallat Ziyad in the province of Gharbiya, destroying 68 homes and creating many victims. The Red Crescent rapidly sent emergency relief and a well-equipped medical team.

In 1953, the Society sent relief to the victims of the fire that broke out in the village of Qarni in the urban province of al-Ayat.

In 1955, it sent emergency aid to the victims of the fire which struck the village of Al-Mahdia in the urban centre of Tanta.

In 1959, it sent relief supplies to the victims of the fire in the village of Azba, As-sit Fadial in the Tamia centre in the province of Faiyûm.

In 1960, the Red Crescent sent relief to the victims of the fire which devastated the Sagha district and claimed many lives.

**Flash floods:** in 1919, 1923, and 1979, the Sa'eed region was swept by flash floods causing enormous damage. The Red Crescent convoy was the

first to bring the victims relief supplies and financial assistance as well as a medical team.

## B. INTERNATIONAL

### 1. *In wartime*

In 1912, the Egyptian Red Crescent Society launched its activities by giving aid to the victims in Libya of the Italo-Turkish war. It thus dispatched a large number of voluntary doctors and nurses to carry out humanitarian tasks on behalf of their Arab brothers. It also organized a collection of contributions in cash and kind on behalf of the war victims and supervised the evacuation of the sick, the wounded and people displaced from their homes.

In 1935, the National Society dispensed emergency aid to the sick and wounded during the Italo-Abyssinian war.

In 1936, it gave financial aid to the victims of the Spanish civil war.

In 1945, it dispatched a medical team to care for the victims of the serious disturbances in Syria; it also sent financial aid.

In 1957, it sent relief to the victims of the Algerian war. It helped to set up a provisional body known as the Algeria week High Committee ("Haut Comité pour la Semaine d'Algérie") in charge of collecting contributions on behalf of war victims from organizations and private sources. The Committee had its headquarters with the Egyptian Red Crescent Society.

The same year, the Red Crescent sent aid and relief to the wounded of "El-Amamah", in Amman, after hundreds of homes were destroyed causing hundreds of victims, many of whom died, among the children, women and old people.

In 1969, the Red Crescent sent emergency aid to the war victims in Syria and Jordan as well as Nigeria.

In 1972, it sent emergency aid to Lebanon, consisting mainly of large quantities of blood to save the victims of the conflict.

Since 1979, it has been sending aid to the victims of the war in Afghanistan.

### 2. *In cases of disaster*

**Earthquakes:** the Egyptian Red Crescent Society has played a prominent role in helping earthquake victims throughout the world: Albania (1921), Greece, Bulgaria, Turkey (1928), New Zealand (1931), Cuba (1932), India (1934), Greece (1955), Iran (1957), Morocco (1960),

Yugoslavia (1962), Turkey (1967), Peru (1970), Nepal (1971). Its role has consisted mainly in providing the victims with medical, financial and material assistance.

**Floods:** some countries have been the victim of floods which have destroyed homes and submerged entire villages and cities. The Red Crescent has sent financial, medical and material assistance to those countries: Belgium (1926), France (1930), Syria (1941), Lebanon (1955), Java and Indonesia (1958), Somalia (1961), Pakistan and Algeria (1962), India, the Philippines, Morocco and Ghana (1963), Malaysia (1967), India (1968), Tunisia (1974) and Sudan (1975).

**Cyclones:** the Egyptian Red Crescent provided necessary medical and material assistance to cyclone victims in: Bahrain (1959), Cyprus (1970), Yemen (1972), Mauritius (1980).

**Flash floods:** in 1959, the Libyan town of Derna was the victim of flash floods causing human and material losses of disastrous proportions. The Egyptian Red Crescent sent the necessary aid to the victims.

**Drought:** some regions of the African continent have recently been afflicted by severe drought. This has resulted in decreased agricultural production and an acute shortage of food. Ensuing famines have claimed millions of human lives. The Egyptian Red Crescent has sent the victims emergency supplies, particularly food and medicines.

The National Society's total expenditure for relief activities between the beginning of 1985 to 30 June 1987 amounted to 2,128,300 Egyptian pounds.

*(to be continued)*

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## **Health as a factor of peace and development**

At the invitation of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the USSR an international seminar on health as a factor of peace and development was held in Moscow from 14 to 18 September.

The seminar was attended by 48 National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies from around the world, the ICRC, the League, the Henry Dunant Institute and the World Health Organization as well as various observers. The delegates discussed the ways in which the Movement contributes to peace through its health and development activities.

The participants were divided into six working groups to deal with the following subjects:

- “Health, human rights and peace: a Red Cross and Red Crescent perspective” (presented by the Red Cross of Yugoslavia, commentary by the Soviet Red Cross);
- “From war to peace: Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies working with communities affected by war and civil unrest” (presented by the Pakistan Red Crescent Society, commentary by the ICRC);
- “Community-based health programmes as a contribution to peace and development (including the Child Alive programme)” (presented by the Brazilian Red Cross, commentary by the League);
- “Other Red Cross and Red Crescent activities as a contribution to peace and development (e.g. first-aid, social welfare, nutrition, protection of the environment)” (presented by the Ethiopian Red Cross, commentary by the Henry Dunant Institute).

At the seminar's final full meeting, a report containing a summary of the working group's proposals was adopted by consensus. The participants invited Dr. Dmitry Venedictov, seminar chairman and President of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the USSR, to present the final report and a draft resolution based on the seminar's conclusions to the League General Assembly to take place in Rio de Janeiro in November 1987. They also called for an “International Red Cross and Red Crescent Strategy towards the year 2000” to be devised and to include development of the National Societies' structure and programmes.

The ICRC was represented at the seminar by Dr. Rémi Russbach, head of the Medical Division, and Mr. Michel Martin, head of the National Societies and Principles Division. The League was represented by Dr. Andrei Kisselev, Under-Secretary General and head of the Health Division, Mr. Markku Niskala, head of the Europe Department and Mr. John Ash, editor-in-chief of the Red Cross Red Crescent Magazine. The Henry Dunant Institute was represented by Mr. Jan Egeland, head of Development Studies. \*

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\* The *Review* will come back to the seminar's conclusions in its next issue which will, among other things, deal with the Rio de Janeiro meetings.

## MISCELLANEOUS

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### *Bicentennial:*

### **Guillaume-Henri Dufour — A man of peace**

Many events marked the celebration in Switzerland of the 200th anniversary of the birth of Guillaume-Henri Dufour, co-founder of the International Committee of the Red Cross with Henry Dunant, Gustave Moynier, Louis Appia and Dr. Theodore Maunoir.

Symposia and exhibitions were held in succession, particularly in Geneva, in tribute to Dufour and in recognition of his many talents.

Dufour, whose parents were from Geneva, was born in 1787 in Konstanx. He was an engineer, urban planner, teacher and politician. He was also, as a military theoretician and practitioner, appointed to the supreme command of the Swiss army in 1847, 1849, 1856 and 1859. Although his name is mainly associated with the victorious Sonderbund campaign in 1847 and the foundation of the Red Cross in 1863, it should not be forgotten that he modernized the city of Geneva with bridges and quays that characterize it to this day, nor that he established, between 1832 and 1864, a topographical map of Switzerland which bears his name.

Dufour's participation in the foundation of the Red Cross was traced through contemporaneous letters, manuscripts and documents in an exhibition organized by the Henry Dunant Institute from 5 September to 4 October 1987.

Having completed in 1807 his training as a military engineer in France, he was sent in 1810 to Corfu where the construction of fortifications required an officer with his skills. There, he was promoted to the rank of captain and placed at the head of a sapper unit. Wounded and captured by the British, he was later returned to France in an exchange of prisoners.

In 1815, Napoleon's defeat and the entry of Geneva into the Swiss Confederation prompted Dufour to resign from the French army and settle in Geneva.



In 1817, he became commander of the military engineers of Geneva and began teaching at the city's academy. During the same period, he set up a training academy for officers in Thun.

He was promoted to the rank of colonel in 1827 and trained Prince Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte. They remained friends until the Prince's death.

Appointed chief-of-staff in 1831, then commander-in-chief of the confederate army, he was called upon to intervene when social and political disturbances erupted sporadically in various Swiss cantons, particularly in Neuchatel (1831, 1834, 1848 and 1856) and Basel (1831).

In 1847, seven Catholic cantons rejected the federal pact of 1815 and formed the separate Sonderbund alliance, threatening Switzerland's very existence. Dufour was elected general to defeat the secessionist forces and restore peace and unity among the cantons. The moderation and wisdom with which he accomplished this dual task won the admiration of all over Europe.

In a letter addressed to the deputies of the Swiss Diet on 22 October 1847 he had already defined the lines of conduct he intended to respect and enforce: "... in carrying out my duty, I shall never stray from moderation and humanity;... I shall never forget that this is a dispute between confederates;... I shall endeavour to maintain order and discipline within the ranks, to ensure respect for public and private property, to protect the Catholic faith and clergy in churches and other places of worship, in short to mitigate the ills invariably associated with war..."

Even more significant were the following instructions he gave to his officers on 4 November 1847: "... If a body of enemy troops is repulsed, give to the wounded the same care as you give to our own men; treat them with all the forbearance due to one who is stricken... Disarm the prisoners, but refrain from any hurt and from reproach... After the battle restrain the fury of your troops; spare the vanquished; nothing bestows greater honour on a victorious army and, in a civil war, nothing can give greater encouragement to the opposing forces to submit. To act in a contrary manner can only exasperate our opponents and push them to the extreme limit of resistance. However strong we are, the despair of the enemy must be feared".<sup>1</sup>

Mention should also be made of the following "Proclamation to the Army" delivered on 5 November 1847: "Soldiers, you must leave this battle not only victorious but also above all reproach. People should say of

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<sup>1</sup> Pierre Boissier, *History of the International Committee of the Red Cross*, volume 1, *From Solferino to Tsoushima*, Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva, 1978, p. 52.

you: they fought courageously when they had to, but remained human and generous throughout.

"Thus, I am placing under your protection every child, woman, old person and clergyman. Whoever lifts a hand against a harmless person shall dishonour himself and defile his flag. Prisoners, especially the wounded, deserve your consideration and compassion, particularly as you have often found yourselves together in the same camps".

All of these principles were later included in the Geneva Conventions.

In 1862, Henry Dunant presented Dufour with the manuscript of his book *A Memory of Solferino* in which he proposed the creation, in time of peace, of "relief societies for the purpose of having care given to the wounded in wartime by zealous, devoted and thoroughly qualified volunteers".

The prestige conferred on General Dufour by his "humanitarian victory" over the Sonderbund forces, his military experience and especially his reputation as a peace-maker led Henry Dunant and Gustave Moynier to seek his participation in carrying out Dunant's noble-minded ideas.

Dufour doubted the successful outcome of such an undertaking and thus wrote to Dunant on 19 October 1862: "An association such as the one you envisage would undoubtedly be desirable, but serious obstacles stand in its way. It could hardly be more than temporary and local. Devotion is found only in a crisis...". Despite his scepticism, he unhesitatingly agreed to support the cause championed by Dunant and Moynier "not because he believed in its future but because he believed it to be right".<sup>2</sup>

On 17 February 1863, the "International Committee for Relief to Wounded Soldiers" was created with General Dufour as its president.

The Henry Dunant Institute exhibition illustrated the steps taken by the Committee to convince government and military officials to accept Dufour's ideas. It shows the particular efforts he made, as the intermediary between the Committee and the Swiss authorities, prior to the convening in October 1863 of the international conference that marked the birth of the Red Cross.

The Committee continued to meet during the following year, focusing its attention on the creation and promotion of relief societies for wounded soldiers in various European countries.

On 8 August 1864, when the International Conference for the Neutralization of Army Medical Personnel in the Field was held in Geneva, chaired by General Dufour, nine Societies had already been established.

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<sup>2</sup> Pierre Boissier, *op. cit.*, pp. 49-50.

The adoption, at the Conference's conclusion, of the "Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded in Armies in the Field", the first Convention of the "Law of Geneva", marked a watershed in the history of the Red Cross.

The Institute's exhibition, prepared with taste and care, enabled the public to rediscover the activities carried out on behalf of the Red Cross by General Dufour of whom it was once said: "He is a soldier, but he draws the human being out in the soldier. He wages war, but he transforms it into a prelude to peace".<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> Two works have recently been published on G. H. Dufour: *Aimez-moi comme je vous aime*, 190 letters written by Dufour to A. Pictet, edited and presented by Jean-Jacques Langendorf with a foreword by Olivier Reverdin, Karolinger Press, Vienna, 1987 and *Guillaume Henri Dufour ou la passion du juste milieu*, by Jean-Jacques Langendorf, René Caecckelberghe Press, Lausanne/Lucern, 1987.

## THE HENRY DUNANT SOCIETY

### Present activities and plans for the future

#### 1. Structure and objectives

The Henry Dunant Society, founded in Geneva on 24 June 1975, "brings together those wishing to study the life, work and thought of Henry Dunant". This is the Society's statutory purpose but it also has other related functions, such as promoting the publication of an annotated edition of Dunant's complete works, establishing contacts throughout the world with institutions and persons who share the same interests, organizing cultural and academic events and helping to acquire manuscripts and other documents.

At present, the Society is headed by an eight-member committee: Roger Durand (President), Jacqueline Micheli-Siordet (Vice-President), Bernard Dunant (Vice-President), Alberto Aliprandi (Treasurer), Jean-Louis Cayla (Secretary), Jean-Daniel Candaux, Jean-Christophe Curtet and Roger Mayer.

The Society itself has more than two hundred members, most of whom live in Switzerland. However, in keeping with the universal aspirations of the philanthropist in whose honour it was formed, the Society benefits from the support and co-operation of people from all corners of the world.

In accordance with its statutes, the Society maintains close relations with the institutions linked directly to the founder of the Red Cross. In Geneva, these are the ICRC, the International Red Cross Museum, the Henry Dunant Institute and the University Public Library. In addition, there is the *Dunant-Museum* in Heiden, the *Museo internazionale della Croce Rossa* in Castiglione (Italy), the *Centro Henry-Dunant* in Santa Cruz de Tenerife (Spain) and in Tokyo, the *Henry-Dunant Study Centre of Japan*.

Apart from the special events mentioned below, our members meet at least once a year for the General Assembly. This Assembly is usually accompanied by a historical lecture.

## **2. A listening-post for the world**

The Society's primary activity consists in replying to countless requests for information, documents or other material, for example:

- A school-boy in Zaire is keen to have an Henry Dunant T-shirt.
- A Swiss pensioner collects postcards from Dunant's era.
- The editor of a Yugoslav magazine is interested in writing an article on Dunant for the general public.
- The head of a Red Cross youth centre in Peru needs a brief account of Dunant's life for his assistants.
- A branch of the French Red Cross is organizing an exhibition for which it needs a portrait of Dunant and pictures of the world he lived in.
- A Swiss publisher is planning a series on recipients of the Nobel Peace Prize and is looking for volunteers to read over the manuscripts.
- A film producer is looking for a biography to create a scenario with which to attract American sponsors.
- To mark the award of the Florence Nightingale Medal, a National Red Cross Society would like to carry out a study on contacts between Florence Nightingale and Henry Dunant.
- Television companies from France, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg and Switzerland are working jointly on a documentary about the Red Cross Movement and want to know everything, right away.
- A direct descendant of one of Dunant's correspondants wants to sell some 700 letters. Are they authentic?

The list could go on and on. The number, diversity and far-flung sources of these inquiries show how universal Henry Dunant's impact was and the important role played by our Society.

We usually try to put together a reply ourselves by tracking down relevant documents. Sometimes, we refer the inquirer to one of our members who specializes in the area concerned. In other cases, we are unable to provide a satisfactory reply because we do not have the time or the necessary financial or linguistic resources necessary. Or simply because we do not know the answer: Was Dunant homosexual? What was his relationship with Léonie Kastner? Is there a "pyrophone" (a sort of organ invented by Kastner's son, designed to be powered by smoke from household stoves) in Austria?

The questions addressed to us can be simple, outlandish, fundamental or enigmatic. We are interested, even intrigued by all of them and we devote our time, energy and resources to answering them.

### 3. Pictorial records and medals

To satisfy the constant demand from widely varying sources, we have had to produce material for collectors and those who desire information. This not only enables us to reach a different audience but also provides income which is indispensable for the financing of our publications.

An example is a set of postcards depicting little-known curiosities such as a 1903 painting by Jan ten Kate which is kept in The Hague, the former Casino de St-Pierre where the Committee of Five was formed on 9 February 1863, a triumphal arch in Djemila, Algeria which was designed by Henry Dunant for one of his nieces, the "Dunant Bar" in Solferino and a photograph dating from 1867 (a period of distress and bankruptcy for Dunant), found by chance in a family album.

There is also a limited series of detailed prints by Michel Rouèche portraying the house where Dunant was born, his residence in Geneva which gave the emerging Red Cross its first address, the Calvin Secondary School in Geneva, the printing shop where *Notice sur la Régence de Tunis* (1857), *A memory of Solferino* (1862) and *L'esclavage chez les musulmans et aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique* (1863) were printed, the Geneva City Hall where the original Geneva Convention was signed in 1864 and the Henry Dunant Institute.

There are also commemorative medals. For the 150th anniversary in 1978 of Dunant's birth, Daniel Bobillier made an engraving of a man freeing himself from his chains. In 1985, Stéphane Baechler designed a medal showing the affinities between the Red Cross and the dove of peace. A third medal is being made for the 125th anniversary, in 1988, of the founding of the Red Cross. These medals are available in bronze, silver, gold and platinum.

### 4. Study tours

The Henry Dunant Society, in conjunction with the International Red Cross Museum, organized a study tour of the very places where the idea was born of caring for wounded soldiers, according them and those treating them neutral status, and setting up permanent societies for this

purpose. In Solferino, Castiglione, San Martino and Cavriana, the participants saw the setting and heard talks on the battle itself and its context. This programme, which took place in May 1983, brought those historical events to life and similar expeditions will be organized in the future.

Another tour took the Society's members to the places where Dunant spent his last years—the Winterthur library, the Trogen rooming house, his home and the district hospital in Heiden and the Sihlfeld cemetery in Zurich. This trip took place in October 1985 to mark the 75th anniversary of Henry Dunant's death. There too, talks were given to recreate the atmosphere of the period and enable the visitors to understand the circumstances in which the Hermit of Heiden became a champion of women's rights, at last received credit for his humanitarian work, became interested in pacifism, received the first Nobel Peace Prize in 1901 and finally died in 1910.

Further trips are being planned, or dreamed of, to Bern and Algiers; and why not Paris, Brussels, London, Stuttgart and other places where Henry Dunant, in his tireless travels to defend so many different causes, left his mark?

## 5. Commemorative plaques

The historic nature of these sites remains unknown to the general public, and sometimes even to their owners and to specialists. The Society has therefore taken the initiative of placing commemorative plaques:

- In *Avully*, at the entrance to the house where Henri Colladon, Dunant's maternal grandfather, lived. Dunant had warm memories of this house where he often stayed as a child with his mother and his brothers and sisters. In addition, Colladon was for young Dunant the archetypal head of family and put him in mind of the patriarchs of the Old Testament. A plaque was inaugurated on 3 May 1986 and bore the inscription "In this house, Henri Colladon, Mayor of Avully from 1815 to 1854, regularly received his grandson Henry Dunant, later founder of the Red Cross".
- At the front of the former *Casino de St-Pierre*, where the Geneva Society for Public Welfare was convened under the dynamic chairmanship of Gustave Moynier to consider the proposals made by Dunant in *A memory of Solferino*. Some 125 years later, our Society was instrumental in having a plaque placed on the building at 3 rue de l'Evêché which reads "In this building, on 9 February 1863, the Geneva Society for Public Welfare set up a Committee whose members—Louis Appia,

General G. H. Dufour, Henry Dunant, Théodore Maunoir, and Gustave Moynier—laid the foundation of the International Committee of the Red Cross”.

Other such plaques are being considered. Among possible locations is the building in which Dunant set up the headquarters, as it were, of the early Red Cross in the 1860s, or the district hospital in Heiden, to commemorate Dr. Hermann Altherr who persuaded the wandering philanthropist to settle there in the years between 1880 and 1890.

## **6. The complete works of Dunant have yet to be assembled**

Apart from *A memory of Solferino*, the books and pamphlets written by Henry Dunant are almost impossible to find in bookstores and have never been properly assembled in one edition. Countless papers (lecture notes, rough drafts for books, etc.) have survived and do much to reveal the thinking of the bankrupt of 1867, the historian of the humanitarian movement and the hermit of the turn of the century. We now have about 4,000 of his letters. Publishing an annotated collection of them is at once a Herculean and a delicate task, on which we have been working for several years.

Very precise guidelines have been set for the *Catalogue of correspondence* and a team of historians are sharing the work. Every document in the collection is analysed according to the same criteria, then the data are fed into a computer. A first draft of the catalogue will be printed, to publicize the list of existing letters and stimulate the search for hitherto undiscovered documents. We hope eventually to be able to publish Dunant's correspondence in its entirety.

The edition of Dunant's complete works will be composed of published and previously unpublished material which must be presented as coherently as possible. Indeed, there are almost 10,000 pages of notes, material assembled by Dunant for various purposes and rough drafts for books. The same team of historians is in the process of sorting out this mass of documents. Each item, be it two lines or 100 pages, is classified into one of some 20 categories: autobiographical material, the history of the Red Cross, feminism, pacifism, political opinion, religious convictions, notes, etc. Once classified, texts under the various headings must be assigned a place in the overall work.



## 7. "Henry Dunant Society Bulletin"

In order to keep its members informed of its various activities, the Society publishes a *Bulletin* at irregular intervals. Nine have so far appeared; they are composed as follows.

The first section contains a survey of the Society's activities: general assemblies, study tours, articles for sale, etc.

Another item informs readers about Dunant's continuing impact on the world, reflected in postage stamps, medals and coins, statues, boats, hymns, portraits, caricatures, etc.

The book section describes recent publications and often provides preview excerpts of them.

Most important, there are background articles which give new insights into the life of Henry Dunant and discuss related historical studies. This section presents recently acquired archives, previously unpublished documents, descriptions of hitherto unknown papers and other curios, reports on Dunant's relationship with his friends Rudolf Müller, Charles Van de Velde, Christian Haje etc., and little known aspects of Dunant's life such as his ancestors and immediate family, his activities in favour of feminism, his promotion of the pyrophone, his reading material, his health in Heiden, his political philosophy, his *Diagrammes*, etc.

The 10th issue of the *Bulletin de la Société Henry Dunant* is now in press. In addition to a review of the 12 years since the Society was founded, this issue contains a short piece about Dunant written in 1853 by one of his friends from the *Union chrétienne* and a longer article on the political crisis which broke at the very time when the original Geneva Convention was being signed by diplomats from all over Europe on 22 August 1964.

The 11th issue is due to appear in 1988. Anyone who wishes to contribute is invited to contact the Society's president, who will forward the text to the *Bulletin* committee.

## 8. The Henry Dunant collection

Since 1984, the Society has been publishing a series of monographs, each dealing with one aspect of Dunant's life, thought or influence.

1. *Aux sources de l'idée Croix-Rouge, actes du voyage d'étude à Solferino, à San Martino, à Castiglione et à Cavriana, les 6-8 mai 1983*, Geneva, Henry Dunant Society and International Red Cross Museum, May 1984, 138 pages.

This describes the political situation in the Europe of 1859, the area of Solferino and San Martino, the course of the battle there, relations between Italy and Switzerland at the time, the medical service of the French army and charitable activities in Geneva in the mid-19th century. It contains several previously unpublished letters from Emperor Napoleon III to his wife Empress Eugénie which were written following the fighting, an account of where Dunant went and what he did during those fateful days and an assessment of the innovative nature of his ideas.

In short, some 15 very original contributions focusing on the events which gave the "Samaritan of Solferino" the idea of a permanent, international and neutral humanitarian body.

2. Gabriel Mützenberg, *Henry Dunant le prédestiné — Du nouveau sur la famille, la jeunesse, la destinée spirituelle du fondateur de la Croix-Rouge*, Geneva, Henry Dunant Society and Editions Robert-Estienne, August 1984, 168 pages.

Until recently, almost nothing was known about family members who influenced the young Henry Dunant, that is, his grandfather (an unhappy financier), his uncle (a pacifist and humanitarian writer), his father (a discreet, even withdrawn man) and his mother (a highly sensitive and depression-prone woman).

The book includes a description of Dunant's religious upbringing at the Oratoire chapel which was the focal point for the Geneva "Réveil" and stronghold of the Evangelical Society, the place of origin of the *Union chrétienne de Genève* and of the launching of the *Alliance universelle des Unions chrétiennes des Jeunes Gens* (Y.M.C.A.). There are many illustrations including little-known portraits and reproductions of previously unpublished writings. It is, in short, a collection of illustrations which do justice to the text.

3. *De l'utopie à la réalité, actes du colloque Henry Dunant à Genève, du 3 au 5 mai 1985*, Geneva, Henry Dunant Society, 420 pages (in press).

This book contains a systematic analysis of sources from both the Geneva University Library and various Red Cross archives in Switzerland, and the background to the establishment of a museum devoted to the Red Cross idea. It presents undreamt-of aspects of Dunant the child, the businessman, the tortured soul, the forerunner of Unesco, the anti-slavery campaigner and man of God. There are also remarkable essays on philanthropy in Geneva, the creation of the Red Cross, the protection of prisoners of war, the development of the idea of peace and the "Red Cross man" (see also under "Learned symposia", below).

4. Roger Durand and Michel Roueche, *Ces lieux où Henry Dunant... Those places where Henry Dunant...* Geneva, Henry Dunant Society, October 1986, 60 pages, plates.

This magnificent booklet has an Italian format (24 by 35 cm). It contains 24 original drawings, accompanied by historical notes, representing the house where Dunant was born, the church in the Petit-Saconnex area of Geneva, the houses of Henry and Pierre Colladon, the Calvin Secondary School, the *Elysée* in Celigny, the *Tour maîtresse* prison, the *Oratoire* chapel, the Lullin et Sautter Bank, the house of General Dufour, the premises of the *Union chrétienne*, the Geographic Society, the Fick printing house, the former St-Pierre Casino, Dunant's city residence, the *Palais de l'Athénée*, the entrance to the City Hall, the houses of Gustave Moynier, the Geneva Courthouse and the Office of the International Committee.

Several other publications which will enrich the Henry Dunant Collection are being prepared:

- *125 années d'activités Croix-Rouge à Genève, 1863-1988*: a brief historical review, accompanied by illustrations of the many aspects of the humanitarian movement in the city which nurtured it and saw it grow.
- *Les publications du Comité international en 1863 et 1864*: a systematic collection—with numerous reproductions—and analysis of sources and publications during those two decisive years, from the famous *Circulaire de Berlin* to the extremely rare proceedings of the August 1864 Diplomatic Conference which produced the original Geneva Convention.
- *L'exilé et l'ermite, actes du voyage commémoratif à Zurich, Heiden, Trogen et Winterthur, les 30 et 31 octobre 1985*. The circumstances and surroundings of the last 20 years of Dunant's life.
- *Catalogue de la correspondance*.

## 9. Learned symposia

From 3 to 5 May 1985, the Henry Dunant Society brought together a number of eminent specialists to sum up the major aspects of Dunant's life. The symposium, which had a large and well-informed audience, was a great success.

In late October 1988, the Society will embark on a new intellectual adventure, this time with *Les précurseurs immédiats de la Croix-Rouge, 1847-1863*, that is, the women, men and institutions that showed their

devotion to the same interests as the Committee of Five by expressing their ideas or engaging in activities such as improving care for wounded or sick soldiers, setting up relief societies, promoting international solidarity, giving neutral status to wounded people and medical staff and perhaps promoting protection for prisoners of war.

Among the forerunners mentioned by the founders themselves or discovered afterwards are the following:

- *Guillaume-Henri Dufour* (Switzerland), Sonderbund War.  
The *Zurich Relief Society*, *idem*.  
*Félix de Breda* (Paris), *Projet d'organisation d'hospitaliers militaires*.  
*Florence Nightingale* and *Miss Stanley* (Great Britain), Crimean War.  
The Grand Duchess *Helen Pavlowna* and *Sisters of the Exaltation of the Cross* (Russia), Crimean War.  
The *Sisters of Charity* (France) Crimean War.  
The *Evangelical Society* (Geneva), war of Italian independence.  
The *Order of Saint John of Jerusalem* (Germany), war of Italian independence.  
*United States Sanitary Commission*, American Civil War.  
*United States Army Christian Commission*, *idem*.  
*Rauhehaus of Hamburg*, and a group of friars from *Aachen* (Germany), Danish War.
- *Nicolas Pirogov*, (Russia) the war in the Caucasus and the Crimean War.  
*Ferdinando Palasciano* (Italy), war of 1848 and *La neutralità dei feriti, in tempo di guerra*, 1861.  
*Henri Arrault* (France), *Notice sur le perfectionnement du matériel des ambulances volantes*, 1861.  
*Instructions for the government of armies of the United States in the field*, or *Francis Lieber Code*, 1863, American Civil War.  
*Clara Barton*, *idem*.  
*Knights of the Order of Malta*.

This list is probably incomplete. Additions can be made up to the end of October 1988. We hope that the present article will prompt those interested to contact us, for example, to inform us of the existence and identity of other forerunners of the Red Cross, or to recommend lecturers or specialists on some related subject.

## 10. Conclusion

The Henry Dunant Society, a small institution staffed exclusively by volunteers, is just as interested in historical research as it is in giving the world an accurate picture of Henry Dunant. We are happy to reply to requests and suggestions from anyone, anywhere. At the same time, we endeavour to strike a balance between activities of a scholarly nature and those aimed at the general public.\*

Our hope is that all seekers after historical truth will combine their knowledge and energy with ours; that the women and men of the Red Cross and Red Crescent who are interested in the origins and the genesis of their Movement will lend us their help and enthusiasm!

**Roger Durand**  
*President of the  
Henry Dunant Society*

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\* The headquarters of the Henry Dunant Society is at the following address: 10, chemin Haccius, 1212 Geneva.

## Relations with the Council of Europe

*The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe adopted a resolution (881) on behalf of the ICRC in 1984. Since then, the ICRC has approached the member states of the Council on numerous occasions and, with the support of the parliamentarians in both the Council and the national parliaments, has succeeded in gaining increased support, particularly financial, from the member state Governments.*

*Encouraged by these results, the Committee on Migration, Refugees and Demography prepared a new resolution in support of the ICRC which was adopted by the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe last July in Lausanne.*

*Relations between the ICRC and the Council of Europe have developed over the past three years, and outstanding tribute was paid to the ICRC and its work throughout the world on the occasion of the adoption of Resolution 881.*

*The parliamentarians on the Committee on Migration, Refugees and Demography, led by the Belgian Socialist Deputy Mr. Claude Dejardin, were furthermore received at ICRC headquarters last 30 June.*

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PARLIAMENTARY ASSEMBLY  
OF THE  
COUNCIL OF EUROPE

THIRTY-NINTH ORDINARY SESSION

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**RESOLUTION 881 (1987) <sup>1</sup>**  
**on the activities of the International Committee**  
**of the Red Cross (ICRC)**  
**(1984-86)**

The Assembly,

1. Appreciating the role which the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) plays in providing both protection and assistance on the basis of the four Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 and the Additional Protocols thereto;
2. Recalling its Recommendation 945 (1982) on international humanitarian law, in which it recommended that the Committee of Ministers invite the governments of member states to expedite their ratification of the two Additional Protocols to the 1949 Geneva Conventions, which entered into force on 7 December 1978;
3. Recalling its Resolution 823 (1984) on the activities of the ICRC, in which it invited the governments of member states to make the international activities of the Red Cross better known among the public, increase their regular annual contributions to the ICRC substantially and help cover, through *ad hoc* contributions, the expenses incurred by the emergency humanitarian activities;
4. Regretting the ignorance of most citizens of Council of Europe member states with regard to the specific activities of the ICRC within the international Red Cross and Red Crescent movement;
5. Noting that many Europeans do not know the difference between the respective activities, competence and responsibilities of the ICRC, the

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<sup>1</sup> Text adopted by the Standing Committee, acting on behalf of the Assembly, on 1 July 1987.

See Doc. 5754, report of the *Committee on Migration, Refugees and Demography*.

National Red Cross and Red Crescent societies and the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent societies;

6. Noting that the ICRC is present in more than eighty countries, and represented by thirty-nine delegations in action in the field;

7. Emphasising that the ICRC's terms of reference consist in particular in protecting all victims of armed conflict without discrimination (helping the wounded, protecting prisoners of war and the civilian population, re-establishing family links);

8. Noting that, in parallel with its protection work, the ICRC provides assistance, particularly to meet the food, material, health and medical needs of the victims of armed conflicts and of families suffering the consequences of detention;

9. Recalling that, apart from its regular activities of protection and assistance, the ICRC tries to protect, on the basis of its right of initiative and for purely humanitarian reasons, people detained for security reasons;

10. Noting that the alarming increase in the number of armed conflicts has led to a considerable rise in the number of ICRC interventions in the field in recent years;

11. Noting that these conflicts, in which the ICRC has been called on to intervene, have not only grown more numerous, but have also become protracted, for which reason ICRC delegates have been working continuously for very many years in certain regions, including those of which the situation has been debated by the Assembly (Afghanistan, Iraq-Iran, Lebanon and the territories occupied by Israel);

12. Deeply concerned by the fact that certain methods used in these conflicts very often violate the most fundamental rules of international humanitarian law, since they include summary execution of prisoners, acts of terrorism, forcible movements of civilian populations by military forces, in particular occupying forces, torture of prisoners, the taking and execution of hostages, indiscriminate attacks on the civilian population and the use of prohibited weapons, particularly chemical weapons;

13. Condemning the enlistment of children in the armed forces, expressly prohibited by the Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions, as well as any kind of involvement of children in armed conflicts, and the consequences liable to ensue, such as imprisonment and torture;

14. Noting that violations of international humanitarian law and ever poorer observance of the 1949 Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols not only endanger the lives of the victims of conflicts, but also



constitute a serious obstacle to the humanitarian action of the ICRC in its efforts to protect and assist the military and civilian victims of armed conflicts;

15. Noting that Africa remains the main area of ICRC activities, that in Latin America its activities mainly involve the protection of civilian populations against military operations, that in the Middle East, territories occupied by Israel as well as the Lebanon have for several years been one of the main theatres of ICRC operations, while this latter conflict and the one between Iraq and Iran are leading to serious violations of international humanitarian law, and that in Asia and the Pacific ICRC activities focus on the wars in Afghanistan, Kampuchea and East Timor, and the disturbances in the Philippines;

16. Worried by the dramatic evolution in the armed conflict opposing one part of the Tamil community against the central government of Sri Lanka, appeals to the Government of Sri Lanka to accept the offer of humanitarian aid from the ICRC in the area of the conflict, and invites all sides in the conflict to respect the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the international humanitarian law applicable to armed conflicts;

17. Noting that the growth of ICRC activities resulting from the increase in the number and duration of armed conflicts is evidenced by the increase in the ICRC's budget from 3,5 million Swiss francs in 1960 to 142 million in 1980 and to nearly 500 million in 1986;

18. Welcoming the fact that, following the adoption of its Resolution 823 (1984), some governments of the Council of Europe member states increased their contributions to the ICRC budget;

19. Noting with satisfaction that the initiative of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe was followed by other regional and international organisations such as the Organisation of American States (OAS), the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), the Andean Parliament and the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), which adopted similar resolutions on the activities of the ICRC;

20. Noting, however, that the increase in financial contributions has not been sufficient to cope with the rise in the ordinary and extraordinary expenditure of the ICRC, which makes it necessary for governments to maintain their financial efforts in order to enable the ICRC to continue both its ordinary and extraordinary activities and make good the deficits caused by certain activities, particularly emergency or extraordinary action;

21. Recalling that the member states of the Council of Europe, as parties to the Geneva Conventions, have a particular responsibility and must exert their influence to ensure respect for the rules of international humanitarian law at all times and in all circumstances;

22. Asserting that the ICRC plays an indispensable role because of its activities and the principles on which it is based—humanity, impartiality, neutrality, independence and universality—none of which must ever be abandoned.

23. Invites the governments of Council of Europe member states:

i. to contribute, by co-operating with each national Red Cross and Red Crescent society, to the public in their countries being better informed about the international activities of the ICRC, including both those based on the 1949 Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols and those unconnected with the conventions;

ii. to ratify, if they have not already done so, the Additional Protocols of 8 June 1977, or to accede thereto;

iii. to help to ensure respect in all circumstances for the 1949 Geneva Conventions and the international humanitarian law applicable to armed conflicts;

iv. to increase substantially their regular annual contributions to the ordinary budget of the ICRC;

v. to make *ad hoc* contributions in order to help cover the costs of emergency humanitarian action financed by extraordinary budgets;

vi. to support the work of the international Red Cross and Red Crescent movement as contributing to peace, meaning not merely the absence of war, but a dynamic process of co-operation among all states and peoples, based on respect for freedom, independence, national sovereignty, equality and human rights, as well as on a just and equitable distribution of wealth and work.

## **Accession of The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to Protocol I**

On 21 August 1987 the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia acceded to the Protocol additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 and relating to the protection of victims of international armed conflict (Protocol I) which was adopted in Geneva on 8 June 1977.

The instrument of accession contained a "*reservation in respect of article 5 stipulating 'Appointment of protecting powers and of their substitute'*". (As the original text is in Arabic, an official translation into English was submitted by the Government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia).

In accordance with its provisions, Protocol I will come into force for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia on 21 February 1988.

This accession brings to 69 the number of States party to Protocol I.

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## BOOKS AND REVIEWS

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### ESSAYS ON THE MODERN LAW OF WAR \*

This book is a collection of thirteen essays (two of them relating specifically to Canada), written in Green's usual precise and authoritative manner. The essays cover a number of topics including, for example, the medical profession in armed conflict, the problem of mercenaries and unlawful methods and weapons. Reflecting his particular interest, however, we find that six of the thirteen essays are devoted to the enforcement of the law, in particular war criminality, superior orders and the level of knowledge of the combatants.

Almost all the essays begin by an extensive and very interesting historical review of the particular branch of the law or practice under consideration, often beginning as far back as biblical times. A discussion of the more recent provisions then follows, including those of the two Protocols of 1977 additional to the Geneva Conventions of 1949. (In this respect, Green makes it quite plain in a number of essays that he disapproves of what he perceives as a departure from the rule of equal treatment of belligerents by the application of Protocol I to liberation movements. This is not the place to enter into a detailed discussion, but one could, *inter alia*, reply to Green that Article 96 (3) of the Protocol does much to introduce equality of duties on a factual level which does not exist outside the Protocol.

The essays on war criminality reflect the extensive study he has done on this subject and he very sensibly stresses the importance of realistic tuition to soldiers and in the event of a crime being committed, their being judged by military personnel who fully understand their situation. On the other hand, he shows in places a surprising cynicism on the modern law relating to the actual conduct of operations (which is not present in his study of war criminality), usually unaccompanied by detailed support for his contentions. Thus, for example, in his first essay on the general development of the law, he states that the general ban on area bombardment in

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\* Leslie C. Green, *Essays on the modern law of war*, Transnational Publishers, Inc., Dobbs Ferry, New York, 1985, 282 pp.

Article 51 (5) of Protocol I could be interpreted so as to prohibit aerial attack other than on troops in the field. He concludes that it was not surprising that France refused to accept this "since it might well inhibit a party's inherent right of self-preservation". This point of view is, however, false, as the provision in question clearly allows bombing by target selection, which is the method generally used these days in any case, and it should not be forgotten that the law not only limits or allows what one might wish to do to the enemy, but also what that enemy might wish to do to oneself.

Self-preservation also means having something left in both camps! Further, in his essay on lawful and unlawful weapons and activities, he states that after the Nuremberg judgment, "unrestricted submarine warfare has become so normal in modern warfare that it matters little what the black-letter law on the subject is". This statement ignores the fact that there has not been any "unrestricted" submarine warfare since the second world war. Another statement which may well be disputed is that "the *Convention on the Prohibition of the Development and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction 1972...* appears to have been completely disregarded by the major powers". No justification or explanation is given for the statement and it is certainly a gross exaggeration.

In his essay on aerial considerations in the law of armed conflict, on the other hand, the reverse tendency can be seen in that Green indicates certain prohibitions without reference to the existence of a controversy or legal difficulty, e.g. the shooting down of civilian planes in war time or the rule in Protocol I against the use of reprisals against civilians.

We must point out an error in his essay on human rights and armed conflict when he states that the European Court of Human Rights, in deciding on derogations by States, "took the line that the decision as to whether a public emergency existed or not was one which should be left to the country concerned". The case he referred to was that of Ireland v. United Kingdom of 18 January 1978 where the Court decided that "the existence of such an emergency [in Northern Ireland] is perfectly clear from the facts summarised above... and was not questioned by anyone before either the Commission or the Court". (Judgment of the Court, paragraph 205). In general, however, the question whether a state of emergency exists enabling a State to derogate from its obligations under Article 15 (not Article 16 as printed) of the European Convention on Human Rights is subject to scrutiny by the European Commission or Court of Human Rights and this was made clear in the case of Greece v. UK (1956), the Lawless Case (1961) and the Greek Case (1970). A detailed examination was not necessary in the case mentioned by Green for the reasons given by the Court which are quoted above. Apart from these reservations, the essays as a whole are informative and well written, although there is a certain amount of overlap in their content, obviously having been written at different times and for different purposes. Those which have not been

written recently have been updated in order to take into account developments under the Protocol and other instruments; nevertheless it would have been useful if the essays had been dated. In conclusion, the book in both form and content is clearly a collection of essays and not a textbook, but the material covered makes it nevertheless a useful source of knowledge and reflection.

Louise Doswald-Beck

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## HUMANITARIAN AID AND DEVELOPMENT IN THE THIRD WORLD

To learn more about problems of humanitarian aid and development in Third World countries, the *Review* recommends the following two recent works: one is a special issue of the *Bulletin of Peace Proposals* devoted to the development of humanitarian organizations in the Third World,<sup>1</sup> the other is a collective work published by the Henry Dunant Institute entitled *Third World Organizational Development*<sup>2</sup>. These two publications have practically identical themes and attempt to answer the fundamental questions posed by Mr. Maurice Aubert, Vice-President of the ICRC and President of the Henry Dunant Institute, who wrote the prefaces to these two works: "How to develop humanitarian organizations in the Third World, capable of handling on their own the consequences of conflicts and natural disasters and to become agents promoting the development of communities, the protection of human rights and the dissemination of a spirit of peace? What is the role and what are the means of action of governmental and non-governmental organizations in the development process of Third World communities and what are their relations with local organizations?"

Several experts from international, governmental and non-governmental organizations, from academic institutions and from the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement have attempted to reply to all these major questions.

At the outset, in the special issue of the *Bulletin of Peace Proposals*, Prince Sadruddin Aga Khan, Co-chairman of the Independent Commission on International Humanitarian Issues, clearly presents a concise and

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<sup>1</sup> Humanitarian Organization-Building in the Third World, *Bulletin of Peace Proposals*, special issue, Norwegian University Press, Vol. 18, No. 2, 1987.

<sup>2</sup> *Third World Organizational Development, a comparison of NGO strategies*, by Jan Egeland and Thomas Kerbs (eds), Crystal Johnson, Suzanne Sande Mrlik and Sören Christian Prebensen, HDI Studies on Development No. 1, 1987, Henry Dunant Institute, 1987.

straightforward analysis: the gap between the rich and poor parts of the world continues to widen, the production of ever more sophisticated weapons is accelerating at a time when millions forego access to basic needs.

The combined international aid from international, national and local humanitarian organizations cannot reverse this deteriorating trend, especially in countries whose immediate concern is the very survival of their people. But, in the main, aid to countries involved in conflicts or beset by natural disasters—or subject to both at the same time—frequently places them in a dependent position which exacerbates the problems rather than solves them.

In reality, it has become increasingly important to urge communities in the various Third World countries to assume responsibility for their own development and encourage all forms of self-aid.

Effective aid cannot be grafted on “artificially” by external agents because it helps only to perpetuate under-development; it must primarily stem from the expression by communities themselves of their real needs and their desire to do everything to satisfy them.

These issues imply educating, or rather re-educating, donors; recipients have to realize their potential in full knowledge of their resources; donors and recipients—or more precisely, participating agencies and operating agencies—must pursue a healthy, co-ordinated policy.

Such are the ideas examined by *Jan Egeland*, Head of Development Research at the Henry Dunant Institute. Having reviewed the positive and negative aspects of aid from so-called Northern organizations to the Third World, the author highlights the role of national and local humanitarian organizations in these Third World countries, organizations which in fact are the “first line of defence” (p. 111). Although the work they do is unrecognized, or even held in low esteem, these organizations have played a decisive role in quite a lot of cases, for example, in the drought-stricken Sahel region. “The strength of voluntary Third-World organizations is that they not only work with, but also *represent*, the local communities in need” (p. 113). More than external organizations, indigenous organizations are directly accountable to the people they serve. They have the added advantage of being fully cognizant of the communities’ political and social background, they hearken to their grievances and understand their problems better than any other outside organization. They help communities to identify their needs and thereby act as teachers and advisers.

The reader will also discover that Kenya alone has some 1,600 national development organizations, not forgetting rural groups, human rights groups and so-called self-help groups which are smaller but very widespread.

When assessing these indigenous NGOs, the author is quite critical as regards governments in the North which, while fully recognizing the usefulness of these NGOs in identifying needs and their working flexibility, tend in practice to use local NGOs as mere channels for traditional

assistance instead of building strong organizations. These governments hide behind the difficulty of identifying humanitarian organizations in Third World countries or they feel that channelling funds to NGOs rather than governments is seen as political (p. 117). The author concludes that it will still take some time before decision-makers fully realize the usefulness of a network of active humanitarian organizations in the Third World ready to deal with conflicts, natural disasters and environmental degradation.

How therefore can one facilitate the setting up of humanitarian organizations and strengthen their activities? *Peter Macalister-Smith*, Research Fellow at the Heidelberg Max Planck Institute, puts forward a few proposals: NGOs should have access to international consultative mechanisms, they should be encouraged to form their own federations capable of representing their membership at all levels of humanitarian work, and loose associations or informal local groups should incorporate themselves as recognized organizations under national legislation.

Humanitarian organizations in developed countries should strengthen their links with those in developing countries, in particular at the local level. Therefore ways and means should be sought to establish a standing international body with the objective of implementing the proposals relating to the development of humanitarian NGOs (pp. 128, 129).

Attaining such objectives would enable the poor and those who help them to establish a truly humanitarian network, to build as it were a bridge between the State and the individual.

The individual is the primary beneficiary of humanitarian law, recalls *Michel Veuthey*, Head of the ICRC's International Organizations Division, in an article devoted to what he calls "The Humanitarian Network" (p. 133). All the bodies which go to make up this network must work towards ensuring respect for the law: the ICRC, National Societies, States party to the Geneva Conventions, other parties to conflicts, regional organizations, the United Nations system and voluntary organizations. The author endeavours to find the common denominators amongst the members of this complex network and to show the complementary nature of their objectives, chiefly the overriding need in our troubled era for concerted action. What is at stake here is nothing less than the creation of humanitarian reflexes in political life and in international relations.

The role of Third World NGOs in safeguarding human rights is examined by *Asbjørn Eide*, Director of the Oslo Human Rights Institute. He analyses the relationships between humanitarianism and human rights and demonstrates the values common to different ideologies, cultures and civilizations as regards human rights. The values inherent in Third World communities may act as a bullwark against the excesses of technology.

Many articles in the second part deal with the policy, structures and means of action of several international non-governmental institutions geared towards humanitarian assistance and development. *Hans Hoegh*, Secretary General of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies,



and *Gunnar Hagman*, development consultant, delineate how the League's policy for National Society development evolved and came to reaffirm a fundamental principle: to strengthen the structural and operational capacity of National Societies, notably in the most vulnerable countries. This objective implies meeting priorities as regards the structure of National Societies and the services they have to render.<sup>3</sup> Responsibilities must be clearly understood: the developing Societies themselves have the principal responsibility for building up their capacity, implementing their programmes and working towards self-reliance and independence. The League, and in certain matters and circumstances the ICRC, have important obligations to support the development of National Societies, and they play vital roles in emergency assistance.

*Dr. Levi Oracion*, from the World Council of Churches, describes this organization's position within the international humanitarian system; it is entirely geared towards defending the poor in the face of social inequalities and injustice. The Churches must follow what the author calls "the logic of the poor" which implies a more equitable sharing of the world's resources and a radical change in present development strategies which favour unbridled trade and technological superiority.

*Thomas Kerbs*, from the University of California at Berkeley, assesses and compares in both the above-mentioned books the strategies adopted by several selected NGOs to develop parallel, associate organizations in Third World countries. He then goes on to examine the structures and methods of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, Amnesty International, the World Council of Churches, the Lutheran World Federation of Churches and trade union federations.

The common aim of these organizations is to contribute towards establishing organizations in the Third World which may be locally self-sufficient, independent in the various phases of their work, in planning, implementing programmes and decision-making.

This objective entails the development of human resources, particularly in recruiting and training local staff for long-term programmes, a judicious balance between developing infrastructures and developing activities, as well as adapting programmes to local conditions and customs. While well co-ordinated, multilateral aid is unanimously considered helpful in setting up development organizations in the Third World, bilateral aid, on account of its flexibility, is not rejected out of hand. All the more reason for it to be kept in check. NGOs must be capable of learning from each other and act together more than has been the case to date.

This pertinent analysis is very well supported by case studies. They include one by *Roland Hammer*, Deputy Head of the Co-operation and

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<sup>3</sup> *Development of National Societies as a Contribution to National Development*, document prepared by the Secretariat of the League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, in collaboration with the International Committee of the Red Cross and the Henry Dunant Institute, Twenty-fifth International Conference of the Red Cross (Geneva, October 1986), doc. C.11/7/1.

Dissemination Division of the ICRC, on the dissemination of knowledge of basic humanitarian principles during conflict, with reference to El Salvador, and one on building humanitarian non-governmental organizations in Kenya by *Bård-Anders Andreassen* from the Michelsen Institute, Bergen (Norway).

After these various articles on humanitarian aid and development in the Third World, one would like to have found a summary of the remarks and, if not guidelines on creating humanitarian organizations in the Third World, at least an initial master plan. Undoubtedly, it is premature to devise such guidelines when the various existing organizations still differ as regards the concept of development and on whether to rely or not on money. Similarly, it is regrettable that the ticklish question of providing humanitarian aid while at the same time denouncing violations of human rights (or refraining to do so) has not been dealt with. We think that the conclusions reached in certain articles as regards intensifying the role of NGOs in the international humanitarian system and strengthening these organizations in the Third World should not obscure the responsibilities of governments and intergovernmental institutions as the main agents for development.

Despite these slight reservations, both these studies—and the value of comparative studies can never be sufficiently stressed—supply a wealth of details and comments of use to all (students and research workers, but also people in charge of humanitarian organizations) who want to have a better grasp of the problems inherent in what is popularly known as “the international humanitarian order”.

*Jacques Meurant*



**TO APPEAR ON 15 OCTOBER 1987**

**EXTRACTS, IN ARABIC, FROM THE**

**International Review of the Red Cross**

Responding to the great interest expressed by several National Societies of the Arab countries, the *International Review of the Red Cross* has pleasure in publishing a special issue in Arabic, geared to the specific concerns of the Arab-speaking public. It contains a selection of articles published over the last few months in the English, Spanish and French versions of the *Review* as well as previously unpublished articles and dealing inter alia with international humanitarian law and the Twenty-fifth International Conference of the Red Cross.

The reader will also find the *Review's* usual coverage of ICRC work both at Headquarters and in the field, and of League and National Society activities, with reports of various conferences and seminars, a list of recent ICRC publications and a number of book reviews.

***A few key articles to appear in this issue***

- The Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions: a quest for universality, by **Cornelio Sommaruga**, President of the ICRC.
- Tenth Anniversary of the 1977 Additional Protocols — A Jordanian view, by **Dr Ahmad Abu-Goura**, President of the Jordanian Red Crescent, Chairman of the Standing Commission of the Red Cross and Red Crescent.
- Suspension of the Government delegation of the Republic of South Africa at the Twenty-fifth International Conference of the Red Cross (Geneva, 1986) — Different perceptions of the same event, by **Jacques Moreillon**, Director General of the ICRC.
- Dissemination of international humanitarian law and of the principles and ideals of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, by **Alain Modoux**, Head of the ICRC Information Department.
- The nature of international humanitarian law, by **Zidane Meriboute**, member of the ICRC Legal Division.

Further information available on request from the *International Review of the Red Cross*.

## ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN (Democratic Republic of) — Afghan Red Crescent Society, Puli Hartal, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA (Socialist People's Republic of) — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga e Barrikadave, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA (People's Democratic Republic of) — Algerian Red Crescent, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ANGOLA — Cruz Vermelha de Angola, Av. Hoji ya Henda 107, *Luanda*.
- ARGENTINA — The Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, 1089 *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross Society, 206 Clarendon Street, *East Melbourne 3002*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, A-1041, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHAMAS — The Bahamas Red Cross Society, P.O. Box N-8331, *Nassau*.
- BAHRAIN — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH — Bangladesh Red Cross Society, 684-686, Bara Magh Bazar, Dhaka-17, G.P.O. Box No. 579, *Dhaka*.
- BARBADOS — The Barbados Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, Jemmotts Lane, *Bridgetown*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, Chaussée de Vleurgat 98, 1050 *Brussels*.
- BELIZE — Belize Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 413, *Belize City*.
- BENIN (People's Republic of) — Red Cross of Benin, B.P. No. 1, *Porto Novo*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar No. 1515, *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA — Botswana Red Cross Society, 135 Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborone*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha No. 10/12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. Biruzov, 1527 *Sofia*.
- BURKINA FASO — Burkina Be Red Cross Society, B.P. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- BURMA (Socialist Republic of the Union of) — Burma Red Cross Society, Red Cross Building, 42, Strand Road, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI — Burundi Red Cross, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMEROON — Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA — The Canadian Red Cross Society, 1800 Alta Vista Drive, *Ottawa, Ontario K1G 4J5*.
- CAPE VERDE (Republic of) — Cruz Vermelha de Cabo Verde, Rua Unidade-Guiné-Cabo Verde, P.O. Box 119, *Praia*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC — Central African Red Cross Society, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria No. 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246-V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA (People's Republic of) — Red Cross Society of China, 53, Gannien Hutong, *Beijing*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross Society, Avenida 68, No. 66-31, Apartado Aéreo 11-10, *Bogotá D.E.*
- CONGO (People's Republic of the) — Croix-Rouge congolaise, place de la Paix, B.P. 4145, *Brazzaville*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rica Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CÔTE D'IVOIRE — Croix-Rouge de Côte d'Ivoire, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Calle Calzada 51, Ciudad Habana, *Habana 4*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, 118 04 *Prague 1*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Dag Hammarskjölds Allé 28, Postboks 2600, 2100 *København Ø*.
- DJIBOUTI — Société du Croissant-Rouge de Djibouti, B.P. 8, *Djibouti*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado postal 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorean Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia, *Quito*.
- EGYPT (Arab Republic of) — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 29, El Galaa Street, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR — Salvadorean Red Cross Society, 17C. Pte y Av. Henri Dunant, *San Salvador*, Apartado Postal 2672.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross Society, Ras Desta Damtew Avenue, *Addis Ababa*.
- FIJI — Fiji Red Cross Society, 22 Gorrie Street, P.O. Box 569, *Suva*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu, 1 A, Box 168, 00141 *Helsinki 14/15*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 1, place Henry-Dunant, F-75384 *Paris, CEDEX 08*.
- GAMBIA — The Gambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 472, *Banjul*.
- GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — German Red Cross of the German Democratic Republic, Kaizerstrasse 2, DDR 8010 *Dresden*.
- GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300, *Bonn 1*, Postfach 1460 (D.B.R.).
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross Society, National Headquarters, Ministries Annex A3, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREECE — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou, 1, *Athens 10672*.
- GRENADA — Grenada Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 221, *St. George's*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.<sup>a</sup> Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Ciudad de Guatemala*.
- GUINEA — The Guinean Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 376, *Conakry*.
- GUINEA-BISSAU — Sociedad Nacional da Cruz Vermelha de Guiné-Bissau, rua Justino Lopes No. 22-B *Bissau*.
- GUYANA — The Guyana Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 10524, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI — Haitian National Red Cross Society, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, 7.<sup>a</sup> Calle, 1.<sup>a</sup> y 2.<sup>a</sup> Avenidas, *Comayagüela D.M.*
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca, 31, *Budapest 1367*, Mail Add.: 1367 *Budapest 5. Pf 121*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Raudararstigur 18, 105 *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross Society, 1, Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross Society, II Jend Gatot subroto Kar. 96 Jakarta Selatan 12790, P.O. Box 2009, *Jakarta*.
- IRAN — The Red Crescent Society of the Islamic Republic of Iran, Avenue Ostad Nejatollahi, *Tehran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent Society, Mu'ari Street, Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross Society, 16, Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, 00187 *Rome*.
- JAMAICA — The Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76, Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN — The Japanese Red Cross Society, 1-3, Shiba-Daimon 1-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10001, *Amman*.
- KENYA — Kenya Red Cross Society, St. John's Gate, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA (Democratic People's Republic of) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Ryonhwa 1, Central District, *Pyeongang*.
- KOREA (Republic of) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka, Nam San-Dong, Choong-Ku, *Seoul 100*.
- KUWAIT — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1359 Safat, *Kuwait*.
- LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru 100*.
- LIBERIA — Liberian Red Cross Society, National Headquarters, 107 Lynch Street, P.O. Box 5081, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA — Libyan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.

- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, Heiligkreuz, 9490 *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 404, *Luxembourg 2*.
- MADAGASCAR — Malagasy Red Cross Society, 1 rue Patrice-Lumumba, *Antananarivo*.
- MALAWI — Malawi Red Cross Society, Mahati Magandhi Road, *Blantyre* (P.O. Box 30080, Chichiri, *Blantyre 3*).
- MALAYSIA — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, National HQ, No. 32 Jalan Nipah, off Jalan Ampang, *Kuala Lumpur 55000*.
- MALI — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA — Mauritanian Red Crescent, B.P. 344, Avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.
- MAURITIUS — Mauritius Red Cross Society, Ste Thérèse Street, *Curepipe*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Luis Vives 200, Col. Polanco, C.P. 11510, *México, D.F.*
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 boul. de Suisse, *Monte Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of Mongolia, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan Bator*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tahachal Kalimati, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS — The Netherlands Red Cross, P.O.B. 28120, *2502 KC The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — The New Zealand Red Cross Society, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington 1* (P.O. Box 12-140, *Wellington North*).
- NICARAGUA — Nicaráguan Red Cross, Apartado 3279, *Managua D.N.*
- NIGER — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 11386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA — Nigerian Red Cross Society, 11 Eko Akete Close, off St. Gregory's Rd., P.O. Box. 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Drammensveien 20 A, *Oslo 2*, Mail add.: *Postboks 2338, Solli, Oslo 2*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, National Headquarters, Sector H-8, *Islamabad*.
- PANAMA — Red Cross Society of Panama, Apartado Postal 668, Zona 1, *Panamá*.
- PAPUA NEW GUINEA — Papua New Guinea Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 6545, *Baroko*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216 esq. José Berges, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Av. Camino del Inca y Nazarenas, Urb. Las Gardenias — Surco — Apartado 1534, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — The Philippine National Red Cross, Bonifacio Drive, Port Area, P.O. Box 280, *Manila 2803*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, 00-950 *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 Abril, 1 a 5, 1293 *Lisbon*.
- QATAR — Qatar Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 5449, *Doha*.
- ROMANIA — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei, 29, *Bucarest*.
- RWANDA — Rwandese Red Cross, B.P. 425, *Kigali*.
- SAINT LUCIA — Saint Lucia Red Cross, 2, Mongiraud Street, *Castries*.
- SAN MARINO — Red Cross of San Marino, Comité central, *San Marino*.
- SÃO TOMÉ AND PRÍNCIPE — Sociedade Nacional da Cruz Vermelha de São Tomé e Príncipe, C.P. 96, *São Tomé*.
- SAUDI ARABIA — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent Society, *Riyadh 11129*.
- SENEGAL — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bd Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6 Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SINGAPORE — Singapore Red Cross Society, 15, Penang Lane, *Singapore 0923*.
- SOMALIA (Democratic Republic) — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA — The South African Red Cross Society, 6th Floor Essany House, 175 Jeppe Street, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg 2000*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato, 16, *Madrid 28010*.
- SRI LANKA (Dem. Soc. Rep. of) — The Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106, Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo 7*.
- SUDAN (The Republic of the) — The Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SURINAME — Suriname Red Cross, Gravenberchstraat 2, *Paramaribo*.
- SWAZILAND — Baphalali Swaziland Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 377, *Mbabane*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Box 27316, *102-54 Stockholm*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Rainmattstrasse 10, B.P. 2699, *3001 Berne*.
- SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC — Syrian Arab Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA — Tanzania Red Cross National Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND — The Thai Red Cross Society, Paribatra Building, Chulalongkorn Hospital, *Bangkok 10500*.
- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross, 51, rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TONGA — Tonga Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 456, *Nuku'alofa*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO — The Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*, Trinidad, West Indies.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19, rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis 1000*.
- TURKEY — The Turkish Red Crescent Society, Genel Baskanligi, Karanfil Sokak No. 7, 06650 Kizilay-Ankara.
- UGANDA — The Uganda Red Cross Society, Plot 97, Buganda Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED ARAB EMIRATES — The Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Emirates, *Abu Dhabi*.
- UNITED KINGDOM — The British Red Cross Society, 9, Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1X 7EJ*.
- U.S.A. — American Red Cross, 17th and D. Streets, N.W., *Washington, D.C. 20006*.
- URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.S.R. — The Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the U.S.S.R., 1, Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow, 117036*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello, N.º 4, Apartado 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Socialist Republic of) — Red Cross of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Trìu, *Hanoi*.
- WESTERN SAMOA — Western Samoa Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1616, *Apia*.
- YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC — Red Crescent Society of the Yemen Arab Republic P.O. Box 1257, *Sana'a*.
- YEMEN (People's Democratic Republic of) — Red Crescent Society of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, P.O. Box 455, Crater, *Aden*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, *11000 Belgrade*.
- ZAIRE — Red Cross Society of the Republic of Zaire, 41, av. de la Justice, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA — Zambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 50 001, 2837 Brentwood Drive, Longacres, *Lusaka*.
- ZIMBABWE — The Zimbabwe Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 1406, *Harare*.